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Education in the Balance

Are they right, those critics who in seeking to place the responsibility for the present social and economic upheaval point a disapproving finger at the public schools and colleges?

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THE public schools and the colleges and universities, entered upon another year, are again the subject of much editorializing and speech making.

A decidedly pessimistic and critical note runs through the comments on the work of the schools and the higher institutions. General disappointment is expressed at the results accomplished by our expensive educational system. Occasionally an editorial or a speech praises the schools and the universities for their achievements in developing intelligent and patriotic citizens; but praise this year is less conspicuous than complaint and even severe condemnation. A good proportion of writers and speakers ascribe the economic and social ills of the world to a breakdown in education.

Many have weighed the schools and have found them wanting. In the first place, it is being said that we have trained men for efficiency in narrow fields but that we have not given them understanding or awakened in them any wish or impulse to serve their fellow men. We turn young persons out of school skilled in some particular specialty but with no appreciation of their responsibility to promote the welfare of society. They are dominated by one urge, and that is to accumulate all the material goods they can for themselves, regardless of what may happen to their neighbors.

In the second place, education is charged with gross materialism. Men are becoming like the

machines they operate. They are losing interest in everything that does not contribute directly to the gratification of physical needs. The love of beauty is being killed by our machinelike education.

In the third place, the schools and higher institutions are being charged with responsibility for the increase of crime in the United States. There is no doubt that crime, especially juvenile crime, is menacing the welfare of many American communities, and thinking men and women are trying to discover the forces that are causing criminal conduct. In the editorials and speeches occasioned by the opening of the schools, colleges and universities, it is quite generally asserted that we are not educating our boys and girls in character, but only in money getting. We are not building up in the rising generation any regard for social, ethical or moral laws, and so, when crime is the easiest way to get money, it will be the way that a considerable proportion of our young persons will adopt. The schools are aiding rather than restraining crime because they are equipping boys and girls with knowledge and skill that enable them to commit offenses against society without any fear of detection.

No difference of opinion exists, so far as can be discovered, regarding the material benefits we have derived from specialization in education. Going back four or five decades, one can find no

specialization in the schools or higher institutions. All students pursued the same general courses from the beginning to the end of their educational careers. Of course, they could not go far in any one field. But when the idea was accepted that a student might select a field in which he was particularly interested and devote his energies largely to the mastery of that field, we began to derive marked benefits from advances made in special fields. It is not necessary to go into this matter in detail here. We know that our present material prosperity has been due almost entirely to specialization that has enabled individuals to push our knowledge and skills in various fields a long distance ahead of where we were four decades ago.

Is Education Overspecialized?

What ills have overtaken us as a result of encouraging every student to concentrate his energy in some particular field and master it as completely as possible? It is charged by some writers and speakers that our specialists have little knowledge and no interest outside of their specialties, with the result that no one understands how to control, for social good, the benefits derived from specialization. We have conquered nature but we have not conquered reason, and we do not know how to utilize, for the good of mankind, the material benefits derived from our extraordinary achievements in various fields. Consequently society is breaking down.

One distinguished speaker, at the opening of an Eastern university, predicted that unless we change our educational policies completely and immediately, our civilization will disintegrate, that the forces developed through specialization will be our undoing. According to this speaker, dissolution of our social organism has already begun, and the only way we can stop it is to train the rising generation to understand our complex social problems and to stimulate the young to devote themselves to social welfare and stability instead of to the increase of material goods by making new machines to replace men and women in performing the work of the world.

The claim that our whole educational system is operating on the principle of narrow specialization is astoundingly false. For the first eight years of our educational régime the work is all of a general, nonspecialized character. The pupils in the elementary school all travel the same route. The subjects they pursue are thought to be the best that can be selected to prepare the pupils to understand their physical and social environments, and to acquire knowledge and skill to maintain themselves in the world.

In the secondary school, it has been found neces-

sary to differentiate courses to some extent because no pupil could complete all the offerings. It would hardly be justifiable to say, however, that the work of the secondary school is highly specialized. If a pupil is interested primarily in science he devotes himself mainly, but not entirely, to scientific studies. These are not narrowly specialized; they cover the general field of science. The same could be said of a pupil who is primarily interested in the social science field, the linguistic field, the commercial field or the manual or household arts fields. Further, while a pupil may be concentrating his energies to a considerable extent on mastering one large general field, he is not limiting himself to that field by any means. An examination of the courses of study in secondary schools in various sections of our country shows that in no instance is a pupil permitted to devote himself solely to any one department. No matter what his special interest may be, he must pursue courses in history, in English literature, in mathematics, in the natural sciences and in the social sciences. Those who maintain that the high schools are turning out narrow specialists do not know what the high schools are doing.

For twelve years, then, pupils are receiving, for the most part, a general, practical and cultural education. The best educational wisdom in our country, and really throughout the world, is being drawn upon to determine what subjects of instruction, what methods of teaching and what programs in school management will best prepare young persons to adjust themselves harmoniously to the present social order in America. If they are failing to adjust themselves, the failure is not due to specialization in elementary and secondary education. If the social order is breaking in our hands, other agencies than the public schools are responsible.

Social Well-Being a Popular Study

But what are the universities doing to train leaders who are intelligent concerning and interested in the conditions essential for the well-being of American society? One who is familiar with university programs and policies knows that many students in higher institutions in America are devoting themselves to the study of American society with a view to ferreting out the forces that are at work in determining social health or social ills. In most of the colleges and universities there are highly specialized courses and students are pursuing them, but a large number of students are engaged in the study of social phenomena, with a view to advising us how we can avoid the social ailments that are afflicting other peoples to-day and that have been the cause of social disintegration in the past. It is entirely safe to say that

there are more students studying social well-being than are studying mechanical or any other kind of engineering, agriculture or the application of chemistry in industry, and so on. Anyone who maintains that all students in higher institutions are specializing narrowly in fields that have to do with material advancement and are ignoring subjects pertaining to social welfare and stability is uninformed concerning what is actually going on in the higher institutions.

Why Don't the Schools Stop Crime?

Whatever else may have caused the present disturbance throughout the world, it has not been due primarily or largely to the policy of specialization in our educational system. Specialization during the past four decades has done more to promote the physical welfare of our citizens than had all the general education of the preceding centuries. Material comfort and freedom from disease are essential features in promoting social stability. The peoples among whom hunger and physical ills are widespread are not in a stable condition; they never have been and never will be prosperous. The first requisite in preventing social disruption is to prevent hunger and physical distress. For some reason—various experts give various reasons—hunger has overtaken some in our country even though there is an abundance for them, and if this is long continued we shall undoubtedly find ourselves in serious trouble.

The leaders who will find a way out, however, will not be those who have only highly general or so-called cultural training. They will be those who have penetrated a long distance into the problems that are involved in the production and distribution of the goods that all society desires. The leadership that is making itself felt in our present emergency is not leadership trained in general and nonspecialized fields, but in exactly the opposite. There is no evidence whatever in the present crisis that should lead us to abandon the type of education that has been developing in America during the past three decades.

There can be no doubt that many think the schools are responsible for the growing laxity among the young of respect for and observance of law and order. Most of the editorials and speeches stimulated by the opening of the public schools and the universities lament the fact that crime is threatening the continuance of American civilization, and call upon the educational institutions to reconstruct their policies and programs so as to put a stop to criminal behavior. It is, of course, the simplest way to dispose of the problem to say that soft, flabby education is the cause of crime and that a more rigorous régime in the schools and

colleges would train the rising generation to restrain themselves in self-indulgences and would estop them from following the lines of least resistance in making a living.

Those who take this point of view appear to forget entirely that during the last two decades social life in our country has been profoundly modified. The young are affected by influences that were not operative at all two generations ago. Recently there has been a migration from rural sections to urban centers, with the result that our cities have become terribly congested and children who are growing up in them are incessantly and seriously overstimulated. Within two decades the motion picture has come to play a leading rôle in American life. The automobile, the telephone, the radio, jazz music—all are playing important rôles in affecting the behavior of the young, and the old, too, but especially the former. There is almost no opportunity now for 70 per cent of the children up into the teens to perform services necessary for their own welfare and the welfare of members of their families. There are no errands to do—the telephone does the errands now; there are no chores to perform at home; there is no wood to chop for the cooking stove or any other kind of stove; there are no cows to milk, no horses to take care of, no water to be brought into the house, little or no sweeping to be done and no clothes to be made. Machines energized by electricity perform most of these services. Institutions have been developed outside of the home to attend to most of the duties that were attended to inside the home three decades ago.

The character of the home has been profoundly changed so that family unity is almost a thing of the past. In two decades we have become a gregarious people, spending more time in public assemblage places than in our homes. Everyone acknowledges these simple facts, but no one seems to take them into consideration when condemning the schools and universities because they cannot, or at least do not, solve the social problems that are growing out of fundamental changes in our modes of living.

The Schools a Remedy, Not a Cause

In respect to this problem of controlling crime, one would probably be nearer right in saying that if it were not for the schools and universities American society would be in a chaotic condition right now, than to say that the schools are responsible for the increase in crime. Practically all the changes that have taken place in American society during the last three decades have tended to encourage criminal behavior—overstimulation, overindulgence, overexcitation of the young with

almost no training outside of school in the performance of regular duties and in the development of an orderly routine in daily life. So far as one can see, there never has been any such profound modification in social conditions and modes of life as has taken place in America within three decades. When we add to these changes the fact that a World War obliterated most of our social traditions, beliefs, and restraints, we can understand how crime in America has increased. The conclusion is inevitable that it would be utterly impossible for any kind of educational program to resist completely the corrupting influences, so far as the young are concerned, of the agencies that have come recently to occupy a powerful position in American life.

It is freely acknowledged, of course, that discipline in our schools and higher institutions has grown lax during the past two decades. Children are rarely whipped in school to-day and some observers say that we are now experiencing the truth of the maxim that sparing the rod spoils the child. Pupils in the schools and students in the universities have much greater individual freedom than they had three decades ago; they are commanded less now than they were then, punished less, regulated less, admonished less. Many careful students of our educational policies regret that we have relaxed our discipline. It is impossible to tell whether the freedom granted children to-day is a contributing factor to the increase of crime. There are more competent critics among us who think that our children are gaining in self-control by being granted freedom in school than there are critics who believe that they are running wild, taking the law in their own hands, defying authority and going to any lengths to get what they want.

Criticisms Are Too Often Superficial

Some light may be thrown upon this matter by a study of the effect upon the young in the old world of rigorous discipline in the schools. One who has had an opportunity to observe the situation at first hand does not reach the conclusion that self-control, respect for law and restraint of impulses that run contrary to the welfare of society are developed by a system of autocratic discipline in the schools.

It is an extraordinary fact that while some persons gladly take advantage of the benefits derived from the use of machines, at the same time they think that machines are robbing us of our appreciation of the beautiful in art and life and are making us satisfied with mere mechanical efficiency. Men are going up and down the country condemning machines the while they enjoy

the products of the machines. They say that everything in American life is becoming ugly and, worst of all, that Americans are as well pleased with ugliness as with beauty. We do not build great cathedrals now, we do not paint great pictures, we do not erect impressive statues to benefactors of the race, we do not weave beautiful tapestries and create exquisite vases. Even if these assertions are one hundred per cent true—they are probably not more than sixty per cent true—does that show that education has failed to awaken appreciation of the beautiful in the younger generation?

Art Is More Widely Disseminated

Let us have some more assertions: Ninety-nine per cent of our people live under vastly more esthetic conditions than did any peoples in the world a few generations ago. We do not have a Michelangelo, or a Raphael to-day, so far as we can discover, but the textbooks used in the schools are incomparably more beautiful than they ever were before. The equipment of school buildings is more artistic than in any country where art is confined to sculpture and paintings in museums. Our cities are certainly vastly cleaner and less revolting to the olfactory sense than was true in the times when the cathedrals were built and great pictures were painted. The pots and kettles in practically every American kitchen are as artistic to-day as were the decorative objects in the castles of the mighty when the esthetic interest in the world was supposed to be at its height. Plagues due to uncleanness, personal and community, that used to decimate the race at frequent intervals, have disappeared completely from American life. The majority of our citizens are going up and down the country in conveyances that are more beautiful to look upon than were the most priceless possessions of the few favorite potentates a few centuries ago.

How anyone can condemn our educational system on the grounds that appreciation of the esthetic is disappearing from American life because we are becoming interested only in material advancement and indulgence is past belief. If some of those who have been most vocal recently in proclaiming that Americans cannot discriminate between beauty and ugliness because our education has become wedded to materialism would study at first hand the situation in the old world where the esthetic is confined wholly to museums and a few castles or mansions while 99 per cent of the people live in squalor without a trace of beauty in their lives, they would find less fault with education in America than they are now finding.

Estimating the Value of High School Publications

This study of 310 high schools in Idaho, Montana, Oregon and Washington reveals the present status of newspapers, yearbooks, handbooks and journals edited and published by the pupils

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ALLAN ABBOTT, Horace Mann School, New York City, as early as 1910 gave some prophetic views on the possibilities of high school publications. New York had just presented an enormous "budget display" in which the work of school journalism was an outstanding part. Sixty publications were shown, ranging from expensive annuals to lowly mimeographed sheets. All were published in the public schools of New York.

In commenting on this expenditure, Allan Abbott said: "The type of paper or yearbook maintained by a fairly ambitious school will cost from \$500 to \$1,000 to produce, and such publications exist by hundreds if not by thousands throughout

the country. When one thinks of this flood of journalism spreading over the country one may well ask whether it justifies the vast expenditures of time and money."

Abbott then proceeds to answer this question: Do school publications pay a definite return for the time and money expended? He sums up the advantages as follows:

The editors gain a medium for the expression of literary and artistic talent and of opinion on school topics. They gain influence in the school, of a kind frequently monopolized by the athlete. They gain definite training in writing for a market, under the sharp criticism of their mates, and incidentally a good deal of technical knowledge of typography, pasting up, proof reading and the like. They gain

—what literary young folks are apt to need—the power to work in groups instead of individually. They gain in responsibility, from the necessity of fulfilling regularly recurring obligations to subscribers and advertisers. They learn to assume business obligations, for which the ever ready "excuse" is no substitute. And they experience from these opportunities and responsibilities the kind of appeal that teachers find so difficult to put before the clever but self-satisfied pupil—an appeal to rise above the dead level of mediocrity. Mediocrity cannot run a good school paper; man's mark of

Getting out the school paper and learning a trade at the same time.



"C" is not worth a dollar a year. The realization of this blunt truth, through the effective discipline of his coeditors, has been the making of more than one boy who was content to slide through school on his wits. And for the school at large the paper does as much or more. It stimulates and vitalizes composition work; it distributes news; it keeps a permanent record not only of events but of legislation, such as the charters of various societies; it stimulates the activity of these societies by their anticipation of "what the paper will say"; it binds alumni to the school; and if conducted with frankness and public spirit it often reveals to the principal tendencies in pupil thought and opinion that are worth his consideration and may help to shape his policies.

Four States Studied

The present study is an attempt to determine the present status of publications in Idaho, Montana, Oregon and Washington. A questionnaire was sent to 600 high schools of these states. Returns were received from 310. The average enrollment of schools answering the questionnaire was approximately 125, and the range was from 17 to 2,440. The scope of the investigation may be observed by reading a copy of the questions asked:

1. Check the publications you have: newspaper; yearbook; handbook; journal.

2. If you have a newspaper, please answer the following: What are the sources of financial support? Is it printed, mimeographed, or typed? If it is printed, is the printing done in high school? If it is printed in town, what is the cost per hundred? What are your subscription rates? How are your editor and staff chosen? What faculty member or members supervise the work of the paper? How often is the paper issued? What have been the major values obtained in maintaining a paper? What difficulties have you encountered? Remarks.

3. If you have an annual, please answer the following: What are the sources of financial support? What was the total cost last year? What was the selling price per copy? How do business men react toward advertising? How much did the annual lack in being self-supporting last year? How are the editor and staff chosen? Do you think the annual worth the time and money expended? What difficulties have you encountered in the publication of the annual? What is the value of an annual?

4. If you have a handbook, what value are you getting from it?

5. Please answer the following with reference to your quarterly, if you have one: the nature of content and the value.

Each question is treated as a separate unit in the discussion that follows, because the number answering each question varied. Moreover, questions of a general nature might be answered in approximately all cases, whereas questions involving definite data might be answered in but a limited number of cases.

There are four main types of publications: the newspaper, the yearbook, the handbook and the journal or magazine. The order in which these publications are named seems to be that of relative importance as determined by the present investigation. The following figures show the relative importance of these publications in the schools studied: schools supporting a newspaper, 163; schools sending news to local paper, 43; schools providing for printing school news, 206; schools having an annual, 153; schools having a handbook, 27; schools having journals, 2.

Nixon¹ made a study of high school publications based on 210 schools of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges. He found that 129, or 61 per cent, of these schools published a newspaper. One hundred and eighty-five published an annual, while but 32 published a magazine. The present investigation covering the Northwest differs from the findings of Nixon in that the newspaper and the handbook are relatively more important.

Newspaper More Popular Than Annual

The foregoing figures show that on the basis of 310 schools investigated, 163 support a newspaper, while 153 support an annual. This seems to indicate that the newspaper is more popular than the annual. Moreover, 43 schools have the news printed in a local paper, and this number added to the former number gives the newspaper a considerable lead over the annual. More newspapers exist, considered on this basis, than all other publications combined. For some time educational writers have been emphasizing the great relative importance of the newspaper and it seems that at least in this part of the country educational practice is moving in the direction of advanced educational theories. Moreover the handbook also seems to be gaining in popularity.

The first problem considered with reference to newspapers is the sources of financial support. The chief sources for high school newspapers are advertisements and subscriptions. Out of 172 schools answering, advertisements were mentioned 113 times, and subscriptions 100 times. Often both sources were used in the same school, and sometimes a school used several other sources in con-

¹Nixon, O. F., *The Cost and Financing of High School Publications*, *School Review*, March, 1928.

nnection with these two. This fact accounts for the difference between the number of financial sources, and the number of schools answering.

In 28 cases, sources of financial support were not given, as little or no expense was involved. These schools did their own printing, mimeographing or typing. Sometimes a local paper printed the school news free. In 15 cases, the school district provided the necessary support. This indicates,

The manner in which the paper is written is closely related to the problem of finance. It was found that 109 schools printed their papers, 70 mimeographed them and only 4 typed them. There was a definite connection between the high school enrollment and the form in which the paper was written. This of course can be expected, as mimeographing and typing in large quantities would become burdensome. One large school, however, had



Pupils of Lake Junior High School, Denver, at work in the school's printing department.

possibly, a wholesome trend in the right direction. The newspaper must be run on a business basis. To accept charity and donations for its support is to suggest that the paper has nothing of value to give. The paper cannot keep the respect of the community unless it is self-supporting. If, however, pupils do not have the opportunity to participate in financing the paper, they lose a great deal in the way of business training.

"The student body," "school organizations" and "various activities," are referred to 36 times as sources of financial support. Because of this method of support, many pupils are no doubt receiving valuable training. Moreover, pupils in general should feel a greater responsibility for their paper if they participate in its support. This does not mean that either pupils or citizens in town should make donations to the newspaper, because everyone who contributes should do so on a purely business basis.

its papers typed in the commercial department.

Out of the 109 schools that printed the newspaper, only 3 did their printing in the high school. This indicates that the cost of printing is important from the standpoint of the school administrator. Only 76 answered the question relative to the cost of printing the paper outside the school. The cost per hundred ranged from 45 cents to \$55. The most frequent cost was \$10, and the average was \$9.61.

The average subscription rate was approximately 60 cents a year. This sum was usually divided in half and paid each semester. The tendency seemed to be to keep the cost within the range of the entire student body. Twenty-five schools gave the paper to the student body without any charges. In these schools, the paper was usually written in the school at a minimum expense. Only 5 schools charged more than a dollar.

The success or failure of a school paper is

largely in the hands of the editor and his staff, but behind the editor and the staff stands the school spirit. The school paper is a joint affair; it must be representative of a united body. For this reason, it is interesting to note how the editors and the staff were chosen. One hundred and seventy-three schools answered the question regarding the method of selecting the editor and staff.

The editor and staff of a high school newspaper are usually chosen by the student body or student body representatives. The student body as a whole made the selection in 54 cases; the student council in 14 cases; the senior class in 5 cases; pupil organizations in 3; various classes in 2; pupil board in 1. In a considerable number of cases, pupils in groups of various kinds, such as the business department and honor society, either did the selecting or participated in it. Faculty members did not seem to participate in the selection to as great an extent as pupils. This is in accordance with sound educational principles.

Who Supervises School Newspapers?

An attempt was made to ascertain who supervises the newspaper. The question was asked, "What faculty member or members supervise the work of the paper?" Out of a total of 184 schools answering the question, 113 indicated that the responsibility rests on the instructors of English. This was particularly true of small or medium sized high schools having no special journalism classes. The journalism instructor supervised the paper in 31 schools. This is, of course, a splendid means of making the school paper a vital project in journalism. Supervision by an instructor trained in newswriting has many advantages. The only disadvantage lies in the fact that few schools have special classes in journalism supervised by a newswriting instructor. In 29 cases the school principal supervised the paper. This of course has some disadvantages. The principal is usually too busy for detail work and has probably had no training in school journalism.

Twenty-six school papers were supervised by instructors from the commercial department. This has the advantage of aiding the paper in being put on a secure financial basis, of vitalizing commercial work and of giving practical business training.

Seven schools listed "any chosen member of the school faculty" as the supervisor of the school paper. This lightens the load of the few. It makes the paper a general school project rather than the work of one or two departments. The instructor of agriculture supervised the paper in 6 schools. These schools were emphasizing agricultural im-

provement, and the paper had the definite objective of treating subjects of interest to the farmers of the community.

Out of the 184 schools answering this question regarding supervision, the general tendency was to place the supervision and direction of the paper in the hands of faculty members to an extent that might be undesirable. This tendency possibly decreases the advantages resulting from participation in newspaper work.

The frequency of issuance of the paper largely determines the cost. It is also an index of school enrollment. By a careful study of school enrollment, cost and subscription rate, it is possible to determine to a large extent the number of times a year a school of a certain size would plan to issue a paper. One hundred and eighty-nine answered the question relative to how often the paper is issued.

Weekly and biweekly papers appear to be by far the most frequent, with the biweekly slightly in the lead. The monthly issue is third, and fourth is the issue every six weeks.

The larger the school, the more expensive the paper may be made and the more frequently it may be issued. The weekly paper is a big undertaking for the small school. A school having a student body of less than 125 probably should not attempt to issue a paper more than once a month or once in two weeks. The smaller the enrollment, the greater the financial problem faced by the school.

The next question which relates to the major values obtained from maintaining a paper was answered by 165 schools. The reason for the support of a paper is of course dependent upon the resulting values. If superintendents do not feel that they are getting value commensurate with the effort expended, it should be discontinued.

A Valuable Publicity Medium

More than a third of the schools listing the values of a school newspaper mentioned school publicity. This probably is the most important single value of the school newspaper. The public is kept aware of school events. The school becomes the center in shaping public opinion on educational matters. The value of education becomes known to the people through the medium of the newspaper which is probably the most potent force in American life in shaping public opinion.

"School spirit" was mentioned by almost a third of those answering this question. If to this are added unity and school morale, and the result is included under the one heading of "school spirit," it would receive a greater frequency of mention than any other item. Probably the value of a

paper in giving unity, spirit and morale to the school is considerable.

In order to answer the question, "Should our school have a newspaper?" it is necessary not only to know something of its values, but also to have an acquaintanceship with the difficulties and disadvantages that go with the maintenance of a paper. Although a serious difficulty in one school may be a problem of little consequence in another, yet a summary of these difficulties and disadvantages should serve to give the total range of possible handicaps. A total of 160 schools answered this question. Among the difficulties involved in maintaining a school paper, the most frequently mentioned were those centering around financing, getting advertising, collecting and circulating. The second most frequent group were difficulties connected with supervision and with pupil help. Approximately 30 administrators mentioned the difficulties connected with, "keeping pupils interested," "the need of a good director and supervisor," "the lack of a good editor and reporter," "the lack of cooperation," pupil responsibilities." These are problems that no doubt exist to a great extent, but many of them indicate the need of this type of pupil activity rather than the lack of a need.

Some of the Difficulties Encountered

Another group of difficulties center around such items as, "the lack of good material," "getting materials in on time," "keeping contents sensible," "lack of original material," "getting good writers," "lack of variety," "lack of clever materials." Difficulties connected with the materials themselves were mentioned 38 times. More mechanical difficulties, such as, "mimeographing a failure," "trouble with stencils," "errors in proof," were mentioned 7 times. Other difficulties that could not be classified were mentioned 9 times. These things in general indicate the need on the part of pupils for training of this type and also the need for well trained teachers.

One hundred and fifty-three schools out of 309 published an annual. The source of financial support was the first thing considered. The leading method of financial support was by subscriptions, with advertising a close second. Often one school used several sources in addition to those listed above. "Plays," "school organizations," "class assessments," "general funds," "donations," "the senior class," "the pupil council," were respectively given as sources of financial support.

The cost involved in the production of high school annuals had in the past been tremendous. The next question was to determine whether the cost is excessive, as is sometimes claimed. It is

entirely possible that the cost of the annual may be out of proportion to its educational value. The total cost of the annual and the cost per school of the 153 schools included in this study and the investigation of Nixon in 1922 in another section of the country, are shown in the following figures. A comparison of the figures may indicate a tendency to reduce the cost:—

Date	No. Cases Involved	Total Cost of Annual	Average Cost Per School
1922	159	\$220,950.00	\$1,389.62
1928	153	103,838.11	787.31

The selling price per copy was also a question considered in this investigation. One hundred and thirty-eight schools answered. One dollar was the most common single subscription rate, and the average was \$1.46. The tendency seems to be to keep the price of the annual within the reach of the entire student body, as few schools charged more than \$1.75. Only one went as high as \$3. One of the most serious problems connected with the annual is the fact that it is not always self-supporting. Some schools lose money on the annual. Fifty schools out of 136 answering the question seemed to break about even and 33 schools had a surplus. Fifty-three schools, however, were not self-supporting. The amount that these annuals lacked in being self-supporting ranged from \$7.55 to \$1,555. The total deficit in the 53 schools was \$15,299.37. The average amount which these 53 schools lacked of being self-supporting was \$368.41 per school.

Selecting the Editor and Staff

The selection of the editor and the staff is a more serious matter than in the case of the newspaper. The annual usually involves a greater expenditure of money; the work of selecting, preparing and combining material is greater and more accumulative, and certain phases of the work require more skill than does the paper. It is important that the editor and staff of the school annual be selected with great care. One hundred and forty-three schools answered the question relative to the method of selecting the editor and the staff.

The selection of editor and staff appears to be largely in the hands of pupils and pupil groups or organizations. This indicates that the responsibility is really placed where it belongs. In the schools mentioned the faculty usually made certain requirements for the candidates selected.

The next question is concerned with whether the annual is worth the time and money expended on it. Many educators are questioning the value of the annual and it is interesting to note the opinion of administrators on this point. One hun-

dred and twenty-four schools answered the question.

It is clear from the study that the value of the annual is at least questionable in the opinion of the majority of those answering. It is not, however, a question regarding the absolute values of the annual, but whether or not the values are commensurate with the amount of time and money expended. The difficulties involved in the publication of an annual are similar to those of a newspaper.

Annual Valued as a "Memory Book"

Financial difficulties seem to predominate over all others in the case of the annual. Next to financial difficulties were those connected with the amount of time and effort spent. The third most important difficulty includes the problems connected with the direction and supervision of the work. "Inefficient help," "inefficient editor," "lack of cooperation," "checking up supervision," "capable pupils," are referred to under this heading. These are problems, however, that would go with any worth while undertaking. It is only a question of whether or not the annual is worth the amount of time, effort and money spent on it.

Thirty-six schools prized the school annual as a "memory book souvenir of school days." "School spirit" and "training in journalism" ranked second and third. Fifteen schools saw little or no value in the annual. This, however, is a small group compared with those who valued the annual. "School loyalty" was mentioned by 15 schools and 11 schools stated that the annual served as a record of school events. "Development of leadership," "executive ability," "enthusiasm," "school morale" and other personal traits of this type were mentioned frequently.

It has become customary in many high schools in recent years to publish a booklet containing information about the school's activities. From the standpoint of actual service rendered, this booklet is probably, with the exception of the newspaper, the most important publication a high school can have. Out of 309 schools answering the questionnaire, only 27 reported a handbook. The schools that published the handbook were as a rule the larger schools of the Northwest. The range in enrollment was from 101 to 2,356.

Sixteen out of the 27 replying gave "orientation" of the new pupils as a value of the handbook. The handbook was considered by them as a great timesaver for the newcomer. "School spirit and interest" were mentioned.

The general purpose of the handbook can be seen from the introduction given in several of the booklets. The introduction to the handbook of the

Wallace High School, Wallace, Idaho, reads as follows:

"This little book is intended to be of value to every pupil entering Wallace High School. It is hoped that the information herein contained may meet the demands of new pupils, and that all pupils may prove their knowledge and appreciation by hearty response to the directions and suggestions set forth in this little book."

Klamath Falls, Ore., has the following introduction:

"This little book was prepared for the purpose of acquainting the pupil with Klamath County High School and with the hope that thereby he would be a bigger booster for our school."

Lincoln High School, Seattle, Wash., has the following foreword:

"This little book contains a wealth of material which should prove of great use to every pupil in Lincoln. Every loyal pupil needs to be well informed in regard to his school and all its various activities. Recognizing the difficulty that confronts any pupil who seeks information about his school, the Boys' Club and Girls' Club of Lincoln have attempted to compile in this small book all the principal facts about Lincoln High School which one may need to know."

From these introductions, it would be expected that the handbook covers nearly every phase of the school's activities. Administration, curriculum, college requirements, social events, extra-curricular activities, are all in the foregoing cases presented in a simple and concise manner.

Few Literary Journals Published

Out of the 309 schools replying, only 2 reported literary journals. A journal of this kind, which probably is designed to take care of the creative writing ability of pupils, could of course, be found only in the larger schools because of the limited number of pupils it is designed to serve. This journal, although better adapted to the senior high school, is also sometimes found in the junior high school.

The nature of the contents found was in one case more typical of the handbook than of the literary magazine. Athletic dates and awards, the purposes of various school organizations, the school constitution and entrance requirements are topics more suitable to the handbook than the magazine. It is safe to assume that this school did not have the clearly defined aim of encouraging creative work through the magazine. The other school merely described the contents as "a school magazine." It is, of course, impossible to judge the nature of the average literary magazine by these examples.

Are Adult Education Courses Purposefully Planned?

Or are they developing haphazardly with little thought given to the ultimate aims to be achieved? This article urges a more careful organization of such courses

By JOHN J. DYNES, Department of Education, University of Wisconsin

IT HAS been said that the essential characteristic of adult education is based on the idea that continuous mind expansion and adjustment are necessary for personal growth and social progress.¹ A rapidly increasing number of adults are registering for regular academic work in many different types of courses.

Approximately 900,000 men and women are enrolled in public evening schools. They are almost exclusively in urban centers of 25,000 population or more. It is estimated that 1,500,000 students are enrolled each year in correspondence schools. The present enrollment of university extension students in the United States, exclusive of agricultural extension, is estimated at 250,000. The members of farm families reached by the state agricultural colleges in cooperation with the Federal Department of Agriculture is estimated to be at least 5,000,000. The Young Men's Christian Association enrolls about 90,000 young men a year, mostly in evening classes that are vocational in nature. The Young Women's Christian Association has an even more widespread educational program, its emphasis being definitely on the side of cultural studies. The public libraries, museums, open forums, workers' education bureau, special summer schools, corporation schools, women's clubs, parent education groups, special schools, as well as business schools, trade schools and technical institutions are all agencies for adult education.

Wide Range of Subjects Covered

At present there are some 80,000,000 persons in the United States twenty-one years of age or over, and of these 10,000,000 are getting some kind of education.² The influence of psychological studies such as those conducted by Thorndike has been noticeable in the increased interest shown in adult education.

Over 400 different subjects are included in the courses organized for adults. These courses are listed in groups under such headings as Americanization, literacy, high school, professional, art, music, nature study, commercial, home economics, trades and special courses.

What Is the Underlying Motive?

A veritable army of men and women are re-training for new occupations as a result of present economic conditions. Also multitudes of women are ambitious to become more skilled in their present occupations. It is estimated that from 90 to 95 per cent of adults who are taking work in evening schools or through other agencies do so for economic or vocational reasons. Of the 1,500,000 students enrolled in the correspondence schools, 95 per cent wish to obtain vocational training. Practically 100 per cent of those enrolled in the extension courses in agriculture (5,000,000 of them) wish to obtain vocational training. A large majority of those enrolled in Y. M. C. A. schools are interested in vocational training, while those in Y. W. C. A. schools are interested in social and cultural subjects.

A questionnaire was sent to a number of superintendents in order to learn why adults attended the evening schools that are under the control of the public school administrators. The replies received show a difference of opinion with regard to the motives that lead adults to seek more education.

B. G. Shackelford, assistant superintendent of schools, St. Louis, says: "Why adults want more education has never been investigated in connection with our adult work. Appearance on the scene and continued activity have been taken as evidence that they do want it and no reason has been asked as to why they want it."

Supt. C. B. Glenn, Birmingham, Ala., contends that there are two major reasons that influence

¹Cartwright, M. A., *Adult Education in the United States*.

²Fries, John F., *The Cosmopolitan Evening School*.

adults in enrolling in evening schools. One is the need for more knowledge and skill that has developed in their vocations and the other is an ambition for more information and culture.

O. B. Badger, director in charge of vocational and industrial education, Tulsa, Okla., states that 95 per cent of adult students attend evening school for vocational reasons and 50 per cent attend for general cultural purposes.

C. R. Frazier, assistant superintendent of schools, Seattle, Wash., writes: "We find the large majority (of adults) are interested vocationally and desire to improve their economic status. We have an increasing number who are earning high school credits to complete college entrance requirements and a few who are pursuing their studies as a matter of intellectual interest."

Charles J. Lunak, assistant superintendent of schools, Chicago, in a study to determine why students prefer to attend an accredited rather than an unaccredited evening school, has obtained the following results:

<i>Reasons</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Academic	3,333	36
Economic	2,793	31
Cultural	2,202	24
Social	532	6
Miscellaneous	265	3

"It must be borne in mind," says Mr. Lunak, "that the opportunity schools, which include the technical high school and the Washburne Trade Evening School, do not figure in these computations."

Albert Fertsch, director of adult education, Gary, Ind., in his annual report for 1929-30 gives the following summary:

<i>Reasons</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Academic	1,903	12
Vocational	5,088	31
Physical Education	4,956	30
Auditorium Activities	3,151	19
Social	1,221	8

Auditorium activities include play presentation, expression, music, poem memory work, moving picture presentation and community activities.

F. O. Evans, director, division of administrative research, Los Angeles, in his report summarizes under several headings the purposes assigned by students for enrolling in the evening high school: preparatory, 14.5 per cent; vocational, 26.4; avocational, 8.2; intellectual improvement, 22.5; physical improvement, 12.0; use of English, 7.2; citizenship, 1.5; pleasant way in which to spend the evening, 5.9; not reporting, 1.8.

The total enrollment was 64,363.

In the light of the foregoing reports it appears that approximately 30 per cent of the adults who

enroll in evening schools are interested in vocational work and in the betterment of their economic conditions. When we consider all types of adult education, such as correspondence school work and extension work, it is not unlikely that the number of adults interested in vocational courses and who are seeking more education in order to better their economic status will include at least 90 or 95 per cent of the total enrollment.

Apparently the evening high school as well as other educational agencies appeals to the individual who is dissatisfied with his present status and is ambitious to better himself. But is the individual obtaining what he needs? When we discover that from 25 to 50 per cent of adults who enroll for work drop out at the end of six or eight weeks, we are led to question whether we know what the content of a given course should be, or whether we are even offering the courses that meet the needs of the adults who are demanding more education. Possibly we should make a more careful analysis of why adults are seeking more education and not be satisfied with the statement that we already know the reasons. The mere fact that adults appear on the scene and continue with more or less regularity to take the courses offered is scarcely sufficient reason for neglecting to analyze the problem with all the care and skill at our command.

What is needed is a careful analysis of the needs of those adults who are seeking more education and an organization of courses to meet their needs. Not only should the content of the different courses be selected with great care but the methods of presentation should be such as to give students the greatest amount of help possible in solving their individual problems.

Improving Leadership in Elementary Schools, Theme of Bulletin

A bulletin, "Standards for the Preparation and Certification of Elementary School Principals," written by Dr. J. Cayce Morrison, assistant commissioner for elementary education for New York City, has recently been published.

Concerning the bulletin, Doctor Morrison has this to say: "These standards are the product of the integrated thinking of hundreds of men and women interested in improving the leadership of elementary schools. They are designed neither to glorify an office nor to benefit the individuals filling that office, but rather to enable teachers to render a larger service to the millions of boys and girls passing through our elementary schools."

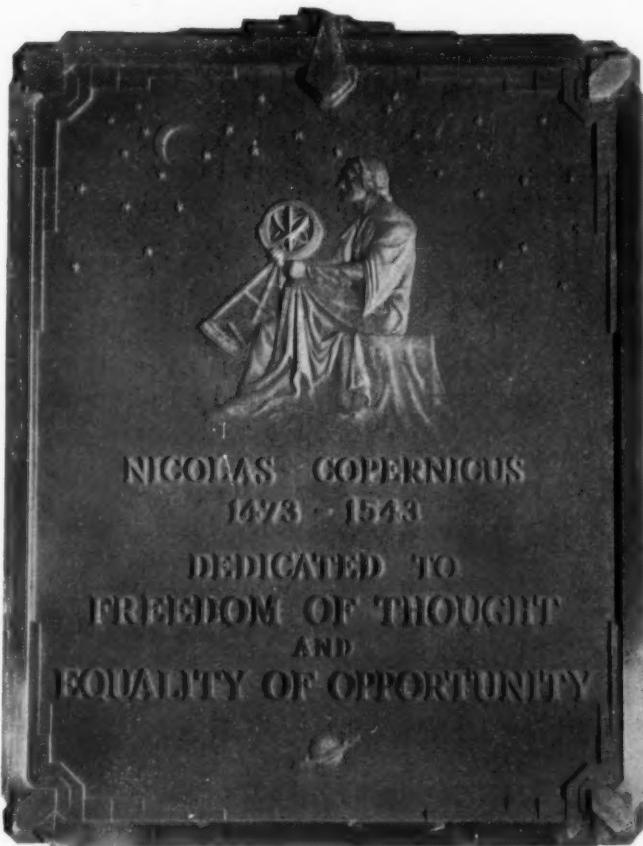
An Unusual School in an Unusual Community

The new Copernicus Junior High School, Hamtramck, Mich., is a splendid example of educational designing that takes into account the cultural pattern of the community to be served

By ARTHUR B. MOEHLMAN, Professor of School Administration and Supervision, School of Education, University of Michigan

THE Copernicus Junior High School, Hamtramck, Mich., represents a splendid example of functional planning and of the development of a secondary school well integrated with the community cultural pattern.

Hamtramck is an island municipality entirely surrounded by Detroit and possesses a large foreign population. It is an industrial area growing largely out of the development of the Dodge and Truscon industries. Hamtramck's population is intensely appreciative of the value of good schools and is zealous in its attitude towards them. The sturdy Poles who make up the largest segment of the population have accepted and are extremely enthusiastic in their acceptance of the fundamental principles of a democratic social organization. They consider the public school as the vital institution through which the gap between the old and the new culture may be bridged and as an agency that assures their children an opportunity to strive for the best things in American life. For the past eight years a social-minded board of education has been projecting and developing a system of public education that is truly functional in its expression of present day social needs.



these in the school program.

Mr. Keyworth believes that the Poles may contribute much to new world culture through their fundamental love of personal freedom, their intense loyalty to an ideal and their love of color, of drama and of music. These elements have been closely interwoven with the current educational program. The result is a closer bond of sympathy and of understanding between the foreign born adult and the native born child. The child recognizes and is proud of his heritage. The parents are also conscious of their contribution to the new world.

M. R. Keyworth, superintendent of the Hamtramck schools, believes that the slowly evolving American culture must take advantage of the finer elements in the old world culture that our immigrants have brought to us. He feels that the transition between the old and the new cannot be made abruptly but must be the result of an intelligent understanding and appreciation of old world contributions. With the enthusiastic support of the board of education he has been conducting an extended sociological survey of the community. He has selected certain elements of Polish culture and has emphasized

The Hamtramck schools are open from early in the morning until late at night. They minister to the children during the daytime and to the adults in the evening. They offer an opportunity for the personal upgrading of the parents by making it possible for them to acquire greater skills and by fostering an extended physical, mental and esthetic re-creation program.

When the new building was planned, it was not thought of as merely another school. The board of education considered it a significant symbol, and long before the plans were well under way the members attempted to personify that symbolism by associating it with one of their great nationals. After much study and discussion they named it the Nicolas Copernicus Junior High School and dedicated it "to freedom of thought and equality of opportunity." Everyone who had a share in the planning and development of the plant caught the idealism behind this gesture.

Planning the New Building

Hamtramck's public schools are organized and operated democratically. The board of education believes that the best method of developing efficient democracy is to permit the children and the professional group to practice it continuously. Every new activity and every idea, whatever its original source, is developed cooperatively before it is ready for acceptance. The Copernicus Junior High School grew in this way.

The first stage was the technical survey to determine the need for a new building. The second stage was the specialist's development of the educational design in terms of the best modern practice. This plan was then given to the instructional specialists within the school system and studied by them in relation to their specific interests. These suggestions and criticisms were studied by the superintendent and the plant specialist and desirable changes made. The changed plans were resubmitted to the instructional and executive staff repeatedly until every item was in exact harmony with curricular demands and yet designed specifically with respect to economy of use.

The educational problem of combining an elementary with a junior high school unit produced certain limiting factors. Physical design was largely determined by the necessity for developing a building on a long and extremely narrow site, at the same time providing for a maximum of play area. The architect was selected at the beginning of the work and it was possible in cooperation with him to obtain more effective results in a shorter time than if the project had been carried through completely before the architects and engineers were employed.

In the educational designing of the Copernicus Junior High School eight distinct steps were decided on. Since these are common to any problem in school plant development, the steps will be described in logical sequence.

I. **The Educational Policies.** The first step was to collect and consider all of the educational policies of the board of education that might affect planning. These were supplied by the superintendent from the printed statement of the board of education policies and procedures.

In brief these policies required the planning of a building with provisions for 2,100 junior high school pupils and for 350 elementary pupils, with a curriculum divided equally among health, languages, exact sciences, social studies, fine arts and vocational education. Each pupil is given thirty clock hours weekly in the classrooms. The day starts at 8:15 a.m. and continues, broken by a noon recess, until 4 p.m. The time from four to six o'clock is devoted to extra-class activity. The building was designed for a class size ranging from thirty-five to forty-five pupils in academic subjects with larger groups in health and in fine arts.

II. **Grade Distribution.** These policies and procedures indicate the general requirements of the building, the instructional objectives, the curricular activities, the extent of the program, the method of administration, the length of day and the adult needs. The second step required the determination of the grade distribution.

After careful study, a distribution of 35-35-30 was arbitrarily selected as representing probable future conditions. Since the curriculum in the seventh and eighth grades is a constant, every child is required to include in his course health, languages, exact science, social studies, fine arts and vocational education. The ninth grade program is divided into five curricula. The approved distribution was: general course, 26 per cent; industrial course, 17 per cent; commercial course, 30 per cent; music course, 10 per cent, and homemaking, 17 per cent.

Correlating the Various Ideas

Capacity is required for 2,100 pupils. Each pupil is to be given thirty instruction hours weekly. The total requirement for instruction hours will be 63,000. Since the school day is divided equally among the six-group subject classifications, each curricular division will require 10,500 instruction hours weekly.

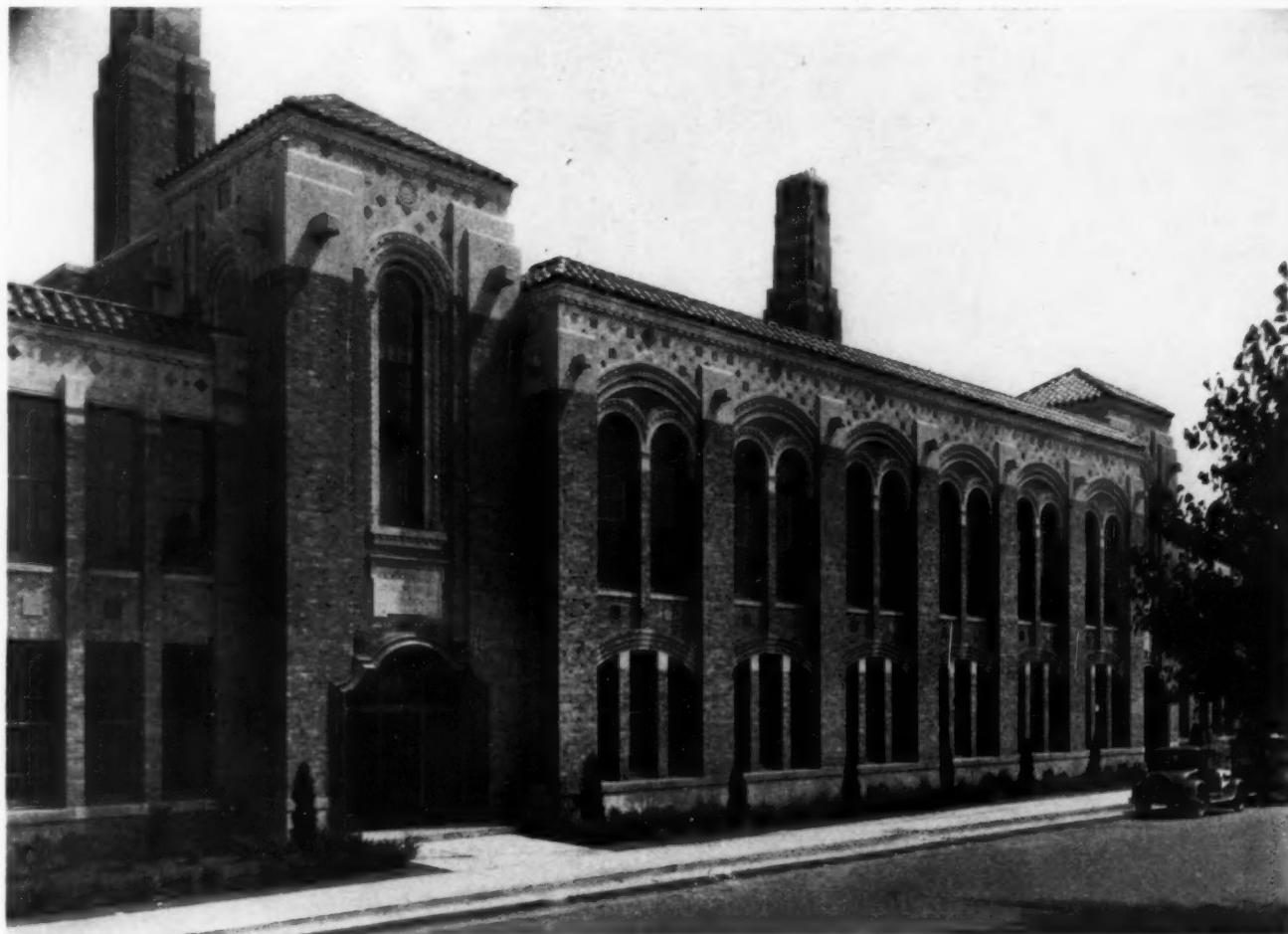
III. **General Requirements.** The third step was to obtain from the instruction specialists of the several curricular divisions all of their ideas with respect to the specific administration of the activi-

ties in their field of interest. These contributions were studied, correlated and condensed.

The division of health education includes exercise and games in the gymnasium; swimming once every two weeks; instruction in personal hygiene once every two weeks; corrective work for physical defects; the development of proper food habits through the use of the cafeteria and peri-

The size of gymnasium class has been set at 140 with twelve classes daily. The size of classes in swimming and in hygiene has been set at thirty-five, each class meeting once every two weeks. Classes in corrective work will depend upon the incidence of physical defects and will vary at different periods.

The gymnasium, the corrective gymnasiums



Brick, stone and terra cotta in pleasing color combinations have been used for the exterior.

odic examinations through the clinic. The clinic is also planned for use as an emergency infirmary. Auxiliary requirements include shower baths, lockers, offices for the health teachers, toilets, space for towel storage, laundry and storage for bleachers.

Towels and suits, as well as other supplies, are provided by the school district. The servicing of these supplies requires storage units near the shower rooms. Chutes for soiled towels and suits are also essential, to prevent wet towels and suits being carried to the locker room. Laundered towels may be returned to the boys' dressing rooms by means of the service elevator and to the girls' dressing rooms by means of a dumb-waiter in the service room. This unit must be so arranged that no materials are carried through the corridors.

which are also to be used as rest rooms for cardiac children, and the swimming pool add to building capacity. The rest of the required facilities must be considered as auxiliaries that have no effect upon capacity.

Every child is required to pursue a language subject five times a week for the entire three years. The required units in language education are 10,500 instruction hours weekly. In addition, the ninth grade general curriculum requires five hours weekly of foreign language. It is assumed that 26 per cent of the entire ninth grade will be registered in this curriculum. The complete requirements for language education will be, therefore, a total of 11,320 instruction hours weekly.

The exact science curriculum is also a constant for three years. Two subjects are taught, mathe-

matics and general science. The policy of the board of education is to have this division so administered that each child will take mathematics five days a week in the seventh grade, general science five days a week in 8B and 9A, and mathematics five days a week in 8A and 9B. The instruction hours for these courses total 10,500.

Social studies are a constant. History is taught in the seventh and eighth grades and civics in the ninth grade. There are 7,350 instruction hours in history and 3,150 instruction hours in civics, a total of 10,500.

Fine arts education is a constant for all grades. It includes auditorium activity, vocal music, drawing, printing and speech. Two periods weekly throughout all three grades are devoted to socialized auditorium activity. Music is required of all pupils for two periods weekly. The activities classified as vocal music comprise ensemble singing, creative expression, readings and listening or appreciation. Those children desiring to specialize in piano are programmed for this work for two periods. Exceptions are made in the case of pupils enrolled in the vocational music curriculum, who are allowed to devote these two periods to addi-

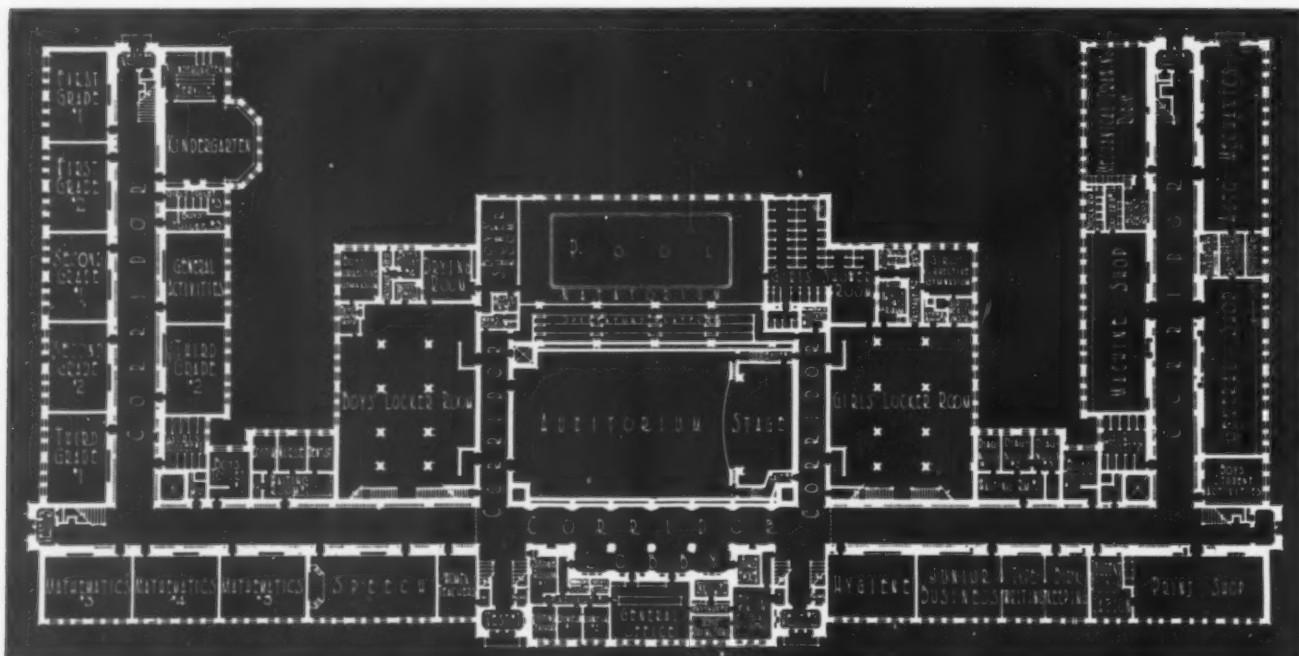
working in the first half of the seventh grade; bench metal work and printing in the second half of the seventh grade; mechanical drawing and home mechanics in the first half of the eighth grade; auto mechanics and machine shop in the second half of the eighth grade. All of these courses will be organized in ten week units.

In the ninth grade curricula, industrial work including drawing, machine work, auto mechanics and printing is offered. This is elective. In the seventh and eighth grades, 45 per cent of the total membership is enrolled in these courses and in the ninth grade 17 per cent is anticipated.

The vocational music curriculum starts in the seventh grade and continues through the three grades. These courses are planned for 10 per cent of the total membership. Those enrolled in vocational music are not required to take either shop courses or homemaking activities.

Forty-five per cent of the total membership will take the work in homemaking in the seventh and eighth grades. In the ninth grade, this curriculum is elective.

Commercial education starts in the ninth grade and selection may be made either of junior busi-



The elementary department is in one wing and the boys' shop activities in the other wing of the first floor.

tional instrumental practice. The fifth period is devoted to drawing in the seventh grade and to speech in the eighth grade. In the ninth grade, either drawing, printing or speech may be elected for the fifth period. The instructional hours in these courses number 10,500.

Exploratory courses in industrial arts are organized for boys in the seventh and eighth grades. These consist of: blueprint reading and wood-

ness practice or typewriting. Fifteen per cent of the total grade membership is expected in this group of studies.

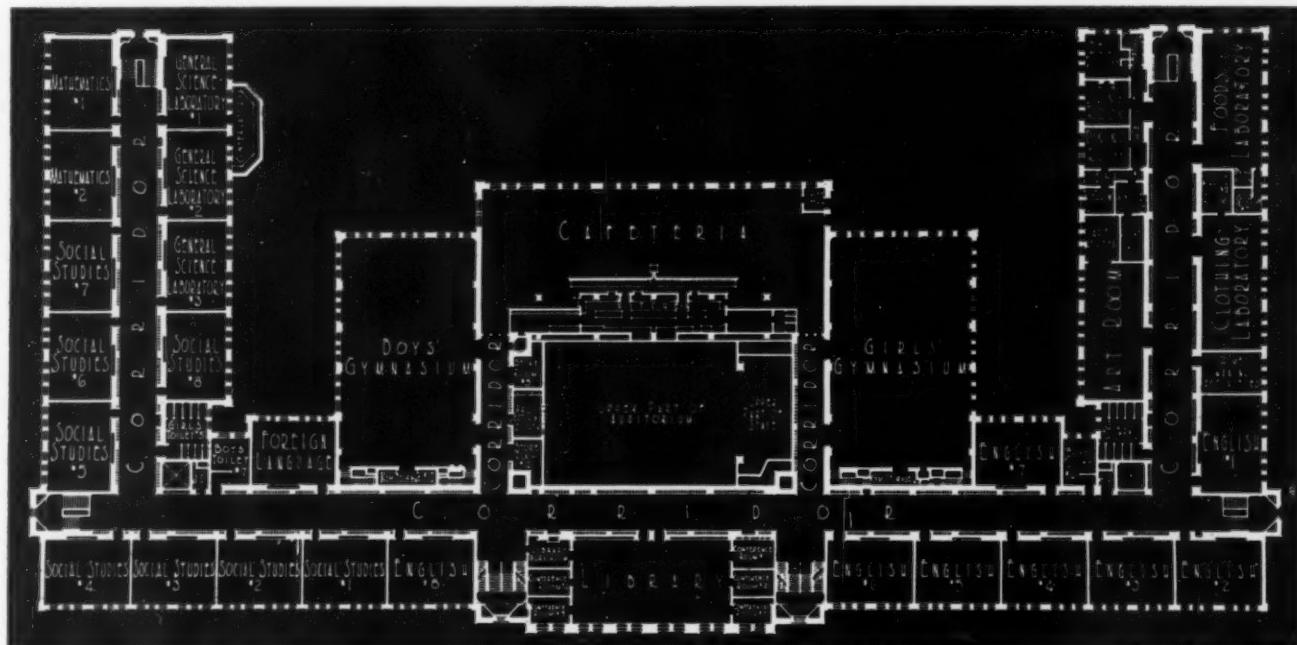
The total number of instruction hours required by the vocational division will be 9,690 weekly.¹ Twenty-six per cent of the ninth grade will be enrolled in the general curriculum, taking work in

¹The extra ten is due to the translation of a fraction into a whole number in estimating one vocational unit.

foreign languages. This represents a total of 820 pupils a week and, as a result, only 74 per cent are enrolled in the vocational curriculum. By adding those enrolled in the general curriculum, a total of 10,510 instruction hours is obtained.

In accordance with the policies of the board of education, the educational objectives are to be achieved through participation in individual and social activity. Provision must, therefore, be made

the designing procedure was to translate policies, curricular requirements, curricular activities, weekly recitations and size of classes into class requirements. In this case the distribution was worked out by grades.¹ The number of children expected in each subject classification, the number of recitations a week and class size were used to discover the total number of classes a day in each curricular division. The total number of instruc-



The cafeteria is centrally placed on the second floor, being served from the basement kitchen storeroom by an elevator.

for special rooms¹ to provide for the creative activity growing out of work in the shops; in the homemaking units; in the social studies; in languages; in fine arts; in exact science and in health.

The several fine arts units including the auditorium, the art room and the music auditoriums will serve the fine arts needs and also the school need for large group projects. One construction unit related to the shops, one construction unit related to homemaking, one construction unit related to publications and two construction units for generalized activity will meet the needs of the other fields. These activity units do not add to the capacity of the building under the existing organization.

The instructional program also requires an educational clinic. The purpose of this unit is to supply means for the diagnosis and treatment of individual weaknesses and deficiencies and to provide a place for the individual psychological examination of special cases. This unit does not add to the building capacity.

IV. Subject Distribution. The fourth step in

¹Only five of these rooms for extra-class needs have been provided for the present. The others will be available when the building is completely used by the junior high school pupils.

tion hours by divisions were also developed as a check in the correctness of the procedure.

V. Room Requirements. With the method of administration determined, the number of classes by curricular division ascertained, the fifth step was the determination of actual room requirements. Administrative procedure called for the organization of the building upon the home room plan. Since special time was allowed for these meetings outside of the regular day's program, it was possible to use all of the regular facilities for this purpose.

One example of the detailed procedure of ascertaining classroom needs may suffice to illustrate the process. The size of an English class is set at forty-five pupils. This may be translated as organization size. A study of child accounting records indicated that the average membership for the semester will tend to be forty. This indicates a room size of 22 feet by 30 feet.² Each such room has six recitation periods daily for five days, or a total of thirty. English classes meet five times

¹When differentiation takes place in half grades, it is desirable to use the semester unit for calculation purposes.

²In some states the number of square feet per child is greater than fifteen.

weekly and each room has a capacity for six English classes, used to one hundred per cent of its working capacity. Since there are forty-eight classes in English, the room requirements for this subject will be forty-eight divided by six, or eight rooms. The room requirements, derived through a repetition of this procedure are as follows:

The room requirements for health education total twenty-seven, including the essential toilets. Of these, only the gymnasium, the pool, the corrective gymnasiums and the hygiene room add to the capacity. The others are essential auxiliary units. The total capacity is 12,750 recitation hours and the probable weekly use is 10,500, making the percentage of weekly use 83.9.

The language education requirements call for a total of nine regular classrooms and a publications' activity room, with a weekly capacity of 12,150 and a probable weekly use of 11,320. The percentage of use to absolute capacity is 93.1.

The social studies require eight classrooms and one general activities room, with a weekly capacity of 10,800. The probable weekly use will be 10,500, or 97.2 per cent use.

Mathematics and general science are taught five and two days each a week, general science occurring in 8 B and 9 A. Five and one-half rooms are required for mathematics and two and one-half rooms for general science. Three general science laboratories are planned, one of which can be used interchangeably with mathematics. The total room requirements are eight. The total weekly capacity is 10,800, and the probable weekly use is 10,500 or a 97.2 per cent use.

Room Requirements

The total room requirements for fine arts are six, including the auditorium, vocal music, piano music, art, speech and the print shop. The latter is also used by the vocational division. Half of the auditorium class may be programmed to the cafeteria daily. The auditorium will be completely free on Friday for special programs. The total weekly capacity of these rooms is 26,850 and the probable weekly use is 10,500, or 35.6 per cent use.

The vocational education division requires a general shop, a machine shop, an auto shop, a print shop and a mechanical drawing room. Home-making requires a goods laboratory, a clothing laboratory and a home and child care unit. Commercial education requirements are ten. The total weekly capacity is 16,800 and the total weekly use is 9,680, making a probable percentage of use 59.1.

The requirements for administration with approximate dimensions include the following: the principal's office, 22 by 15 feet; the assistant

principal's office, 18 by 15; the general office, 22 by 15; the waiting room, 22 by 15; the vocational counselor's office, 22 by 15; the visiting teacher's office, 15 by 15; the women teachers' rest room, 22 by 15; the men teachers' rest room, 22 by 15; two stores, 15 by 15; the vault (record storage), 15 by 8; the receiving room (basement), 30 by 30; the educational clinic, 22 by 30.

The required elementary capacity is for 350 children. To meet these needs, one kindergarten, six generalized classrooms and one general activities room have been provided.

Flexibility a First Consideration

The effectiveness of space-use in this building may be estimated in two ways. The first of these is to consider the possible use in relation to the absolute capacity; the second is to consider the relationship of use to working capacity. Since it was considered desirable to show the effect of instructional flexibility, secured through the development of activity units and of a generous but essential fine arts unit, use was first considered with respect to absolute capacity. The departmental use-ratio varied from 29.6 in fine arts to 97.2 in exact science, the one curricular division for which no special activity room was immediately provided. The use-ratio for the entire building was 61.2 per cent.

The use of working capacity as the second method eliminated the capacity of all quarters not adding directly to curricular capacity in terms of existing subject requirements. Excess capacity in the auditorium, designed for audience activity and community use, was reduced to the possible capacity upon an instructional basis. On the basis of these calculations, the departmental use ranged from 71.5 in vocational to 97.2 in exact science and social studies. The total building use-ratio on working capacity was 84.5 per cent as contrasted with 61.2 per cent upon absolute capacity. Both methods are accurate in terms of the definitions used. The second practice is most commonly used.

VI. The Site. When the room requirements were ascertained, the next step consisted of a careful study of the site to determine the building form. The site, owing to peculiarities in subdividing, was long and narrow. Placement to use the land advantageously confined the building type immediately either to a T or an E. Further study in terms of room requirements indicated the E type as the most economical unit. The selection of the E plan ensured expansibility, although the need for this factor was considered remote in this instance. Board of education policies called for a two-story building with a possible three-story central unit to care for activities involving many pupils.

VII. Plan Development. With the site size and dimensions ascertained, the general form and height of the building determined, the seventh step was the actual development of the plan. A construction unit of 22 by 15 feet was selected as the most desirable size and all facilities were developed in terms of multiples of this basic unit. Flexibility was thus ensured.

One of the requirements was that the gymnasiums, the pools, the cafeteria, the auditorium and the library should be designed for dual use by children and by adults. A second requirement was that adult use should be confined entirely to one section of the building without disturbing the other units. To meet this need, the large capacity units were centered. A third factor was the problem involved in the development of facilities for music. The curricular offerings in vocational music and in fine arts were extensive. Vocal music was organized for the first time to provide for individualized activity in ensemble singing, creative work, readings in the development of music and its relationship to our culture and listening activities through means of the phonograph. Class instruction was required in piano. Ample provision was essential for a full symphony orchestra.

All of these units were to be closely related with respect to each other. The noise possibilities made this a difficult problem. Finally, the entire unit

was located on the third floor over the cafeteria, and specifically treated for noise elimination.

Lateral lighting was required for the swimming pool. Since swimming was offered only once every two weeks, one pool was sufficient to meet the curricular demands.

VIII. Detailed Planning. The general educational plan represents gross planning. The eighth step was to ask the instructional and administrative staffs for criticisms of the general room layout. They checked the curricular needs against the tentative provisions. As a result of several conferences, certain minor adjustments and changes were made. In many cases, the suggestions offered were worth while and improved the plan; in some instances, ideas were presented that were untenable when they were considered in relationship to the entire project. All ideas, good and poor, were studied carefully by the superintendent and discussed until a satisfactory decision was reached.

The second contribution made by the instructional specialists was the supplying of the detailed needs for each curricular activity with respect to files, bookcases, special built-in equipment, blackboard, corkboard and other details. All of these were derived from a careful study of curricular needs and by the actual working out of these needs in practice. These requirements were brought together by the educational specialist and careful



The three commercial rooms are separated by glass partitions and are under the supervision of one teacher.

attempts were made to unify and integrate them in terms of economical building procedure. Where a certain standardized unit would meet the needs of a different curricular division, this was designed.

In the course of this work, many little differences in departmental design were eliminated. An example is the coordination of the needs of the language, the exact science and the social studies divisions for cupboard space. The apparently diverse needs of these divisions were finally unified through the instruction specialists' agreeing upon a single cupboard, developed in four units.

When this work was completed, drawings were made by the architect on the floor plan and detail

sheets. Blueprints were made and subjected to the closest examination, both by administrative and instructional staff. Changes were effected from time to time, but these related only to minor details. When the working drawings were finally accepted, they embodied the original educational design, the carefully coordinated requirements of the instructional specialists and the suggestions of the superintendent, the architects and the engineers. They were in effect, the result of an intelligently organized cooperative undertaking. No individual in this group would have been able through his own efforts to produce so effective a plan. The results show the value of the cooperative method.

Simplicity and Compactness Feature the Architectural Plan

By B. C. WETZEL & COMPANY, Architects, Detroit

THE Copernicus Junior High School, approximately 440 feet long by 196 feet deep, is located on a site 754 feet long by 214 feet deep. It is E shaped.

Both the exterior and the interior are designed in the modern style of architecture. The building is faced with brick, stone and terra cotta. The brick is in several shades of orange and the terra cotta consists mostly of inserts in the stone work. These are in several colors ranging from light buff, through orange to reddish purple, an arrangement that produces a harmonious and successful color combination.

The entire building is built with a concrete and steel frame, including concrete columns in both interior and exterior walls, concrete beams, concrete floors and roof and steel trusses. The use of a concrete frame has a twofold advantage: (1) the rapid erection of the building and (2) flexibility, in that any wall of the building may be removed for future changes and, since the columns are spaced on a uniform spacing of 15-foot centers (half the length of the classrooms), the present or future division of the rooms into multiples of the 15-foot units is rendered comparatively simple. It was considered inadvisable to use units of 10 feet because the 10-foot unit, when used singly, has proved to be too small for advantageous use. The heating and ventilating inlets and outlets and the electrical wiring outlets were uniformly spaced in each 15-foot unit so as to be correctly spaced for any multiple of the 15-foot units.

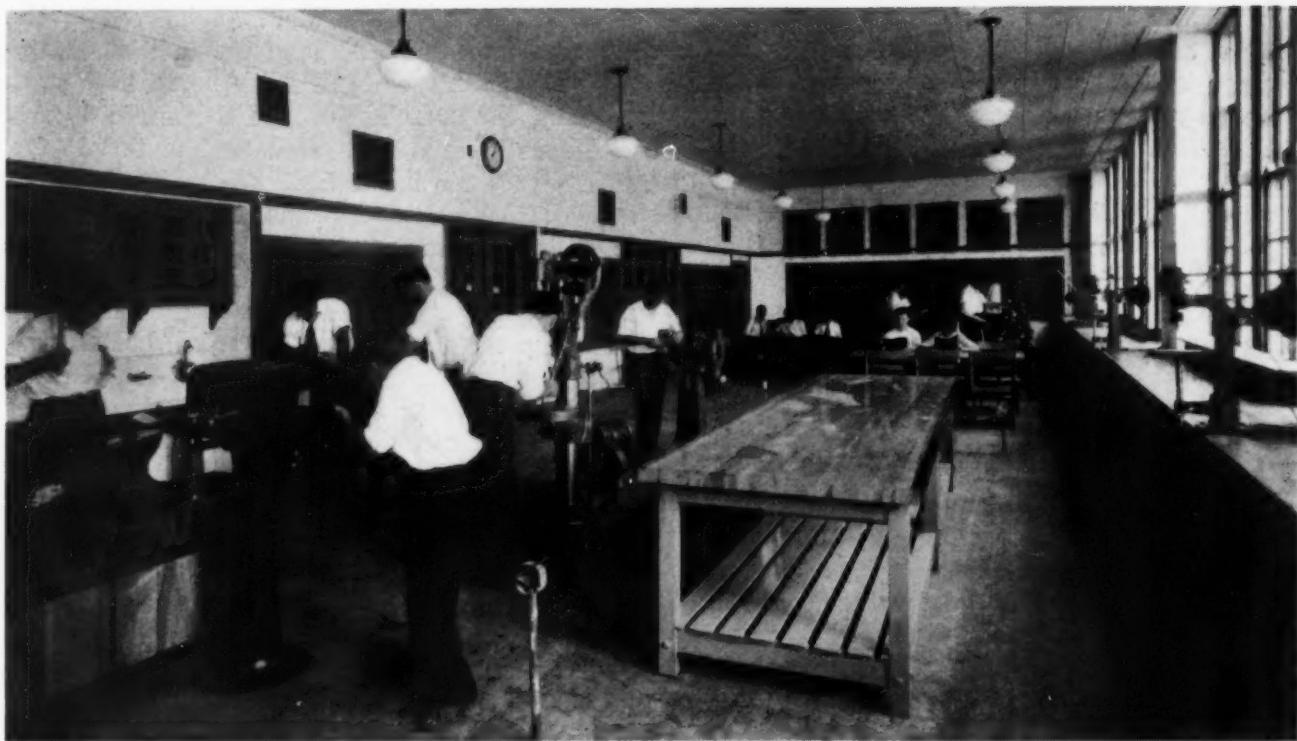
The first floors are reinforced concrete slabs suspended from the beam and column construction.

They are excavated 2½ feet or more underneath. The reasons for suspending the first floors are: (1) to prevent the settling and cracking of the floors, such as occurs when concrete floors are built on filled in earth, (2) to obtain floors free from dampness and suitable to receive linoleum finish when that is desirable and (3) to provide access space under all parts of the first floor for repairing and installing piping and electrical wiring.

Every Unit Carefully Planned

The building is planned with directness and simplicity. It is two stories high with the exception of the center portion which has a third story devoted entirely to the musical department. The auditorium is directly across the corridor from the two front entrances, with the administrative offices on the front elevation between the two entrances. The library is placed over the administrative offices. Stairways are placed two in the front, two in the rear and one at each end. Both boys' and girls' toilets have been located on each end of each floor.

The elementary department was placed in one wing and the boys' shop activities were placed in the other wing on the first floor. Rooms for the girls' domestic activities are on the second floor. Separate gymnasiums for the boys and girls are in the center portion, with the natatorium connecting the two shower rooms. The cafeteria is centrally placed on the second floor, the cafeteria kitchen being served from the kitchen storeroom in the basement by means of an elevator. The



The machine shop, partially equipped, has an acoustically treated ceiling and built-in equipment.

music department occupies the entire third floor in the central portion where the sound will be the least disturbing to the remainder of the school, and the elevator is extended to the musical instrument storage room to facilitate the transportation of the heavier instruments and pianos.

The problems to be considered in the layout of a large music department are the different kinds of instruction, administration and storage facilities. In the Copernicus Junior High School, musical instruction is given in a large orchestra room, three instrument practice rooms, piano practice rooms consisting of a central room and ten small rooms, a girls' vocal room, a boys' vocal room and four phonograph listening booths. The instrument practice rooms are designed to be administered from the orchestra room and for that reason glass is placed in the partitions and doors between the orchestra room and the instrument practice rooms. Likewise the instructor in the large piano room can see through the glass in the doors and partitions of all the ten small piano practice rooms. The doors to the phonograph booths are largely of glass.

The most difficult problem in connection with the layout proved to be that of providing storage facilities for all of the instruments used in the orchestra, and also for the phonograph records and the library. In the instrument storage room are storage compartments for 166 instruments and pegs for fourteen cellos. The compartment for the tubas are felt lined and the pegs for the cellos are rubber

covered. The compartments and pegs are designed so as not to subject the instruments to any unnatural strains. The instrument storage room has three Dutch doors to enable the rapid checking in and out of the different instruments at the class periods. The larger instruments are placed near the doors for the same reason. The record storage consists of a built-in cabinet containing ninety-six compartments, each 4 inches wide and 13 inches high. The music library has built-in compartments in all walls extending from floor to ceiling.

Solving Acoustical Problems

The acoustical problems in any musical department may be divided into two kinds, sound absorption and sound transmission. Reverberations are the cause of discordant sounds and echoes in a room. They are brought about by the original sounds that are produced by the instruments or by the voice reflecting from the walls, the floor and the ceiling of a room to fill it with multiple reflections through and above which it becomes necessary to distinguish the orderly progression of the original sound produced by the instruments or voice. The duration of the reverberations depends upon the shape and size of the room and the materials in and on the walls, the floor and the ceiling of the room.

In designing a musical department, consideration must be given to the size and shape of the rooms and to the absorptive or sound deadening materials to be used in the rooms. In the Coper-

nicus Junior High School we were able to control the size and shape of all of the rooms, except the passage which, because of its long narrow shape, offered opportunities for sound that might reach the passage by means of the doors and travel throughout the length of the passage by reflections from wall to wall. When the size, shape and sound absorptive qualities of the different rooms were analyzed, sound absorbing acoustical material was specified on the ceilings of the orchestra room, one of the piano rooms, the boys' vocal room, the girls' vocal room and the passage.

Sound transmission treatment is necessary to prevent the sounds made in the various rooms from being heard in the different rooms and in the floor below. To prevent sounds made in the orchestra room, in the instrument practice rooms and in the piano and vocal rooms, especially the sounds made from the instruments that rest on the floor of these rooms, from being heard in the floor below, special floor sound insulation was used. This consisted of wood sleepers to which the flooring is nailed resting on special steel spring clips and the space between the sleepers filled with fibrous material. To prevent sounds from traveling from room to room it was necessary to install soundproofing material on the walls and ceilings and to use soundproof doors. Wood strips were attached to the gypsum walls, then spring clips to the wood strips, then plaster board to the spring clips. The plaster board was then plastered.

Various Types of Flooring Are Used

The ceilings presented a more difficult problem because the orchestra room, two of the instrument practice rooms, one of the piano rooms and the vocal rooms had skylights in the ceilings. To prevent the transmission of sound through the skylights into the attic space and down through the skylights of the adjoining rooms the gypsum partitions enclosing each room having a skylight were extended through the attic to the underside of the roof. Where skylights did not occur, the gypsum partitions extended only to the ceilings of the rooms and a 4-inch thickness of loose fibrous material was spread in the attic on top of the ceilings and partitions. Soundproof doors were installed to prevent the sound from leaving the rooms through the door openings and reaching the sound conveying passage. As the various rooms are ventilated by a system of metal ducts, it was necessary to install baffles of absorptive material in the ducts to prevent sound being transmitted by means of the ducts.

The classrooms are floored with maple, the administration department and the library with linoleum tile and the corridors, the cafeteria and the

kitchen with terrazzo. Linoleum is used in the kindergarten. The ceilings of the auditorium, the cafeteria, all the shops, the natatorium, both gymnasiums, the speech room and the music department are treated with acoustical material of a quality that can be washed. The wainscoting of the corridors and toilet rooms are tile. All interior wood finish is birch finished with colored lacquer.

The heating system is what is commonly known as the "split system," that is, radiators for heating and tempered air for ventilation. All heat is generated with oil burners using heavy oil. Unusual flexibility is obtained by the separate control of groups of rooms requiring widely contrasted periods of use. Four separate zones of heating control are arranged as follows: (1) gymnasiums and natatorium, (2) administration, (3) auditorium and (4) classrooms.

The capacity is 2,100 junior high school pupils and 350 elementary children. The volume of the building is 2,579,429 cubic feet. The total cost is \$850,000. The cost per pupil is \$346.

What Michigan School Heads Think About High School Contests

City superintendents who recently met in conference in Traverse City, Mich., recommend the reorganization and curtailment of contests and tournaments for Michigan high schools.

The report of the contest committee contends that "present economic conditions make it advisable that such contests be limited in number and extent. The present practice of conducting regional and state contests makes it necessary for pupils to travel long distances. The cost of maintaining and transporting contestants on those long trips is out of proportion to the educational value and tends to cause a community to divert funds to the support of a limited number of pupils."

The report of the committee was based upon a comprehensive study covering a period of several months, says the *Michigan Education Journal*.

Ontario's Traveling Schools and Their Pioneer Service

Five traveling schools are bringing to the children in the isolated parts of Ontario an education they otherwise would not get. The school cars, a part of the educational plan of the Ontario Department of Education, travel an average of 180 miles a month in making the school circuit, moving their headquarters six times during the month.

Radio School Days Begin for More Than 60,000,000 Pupils

The American School of the Air, which started its educational broadcasts on November 9, has planned a program that promises to attract both in-school and out-of-school listeners

By WILLIAM C. BAGLEY, New York City

THE striking success of the American School of the Air during the past year, as evidenced by the wide response of the teaching profession and the hearty cooperation of various official and civic groups, has led the officials of the Columbia Broadcasting System to continue these school broadcasts this year.

The interest in education by radio has increased tremendously during the past year and educators are becoming more and more convinced of the ra-

dio's value to the classroom. During the American School of the Air series last year, state superintendents of education, city superintendents of schools and various school principals in more than sixty-five cities throughout the United States were personally interviewed in an attempt to get an accurate professional opinion regarding radio's value to the educational field and an evaluation of the worth of the existing programs. As a group, more than 75 per cent of the men interviewed



A group of primary children listen to a broadcast designed especially for them.

were enthusiastic about the work being done by the American School of the Air and were anxious to further the use of the radio in their districts. The great interest of the listeners-in in the school and home in educational broadcasts is shown by the thousands of letters of inquiry that were received by the Columbia Broadcasting System when the American School of the Air series closed last May.

Sixty Stations to Broadcast Programs

This year the programs of the American School of the Air began on November 9. They will follow the plan of the earlier series. There will be five half-hour broadcasts each week, from 2:30 to 3 p.m. (Eastern Standard Time) each school day. On Mondays, there will be history dramatizations for the intermediate and upper grades; on Tuesdays, music appreciation and geography for the intermediate and upper grades; on Wednesdays, literature dramatizations for the intermediate and upper grades; on Thursdays, music appreciation for the primary grades and, on Fridays, vocational guidance and current events for the upper grades.

On alternate Thursdays, instead of having the music for the primary grades, there will be elementary science talks for the intermediate grades. On December 2 and 16, January 27, February 24, March 9 and April 13, days that would ordinarily be reserved for literature dramatizations, Henry Turner Bailey, eminent art critic and lecturer, will discuss various masterpieces of American art.

Not only does the radio provide these distinctly educational programs but, in addition, there are many broadcasts which due to their cultural and informative nature provide organized supplementary material. Among them are the broadcasts of the Philharmonic Symphony Orchestra conducted by Arturo Toscanini, those of the Curtis Institute of Music and those of the Philadelphia Symphony under the direction of Leopold Stokowski. There will also be regular discussions of the political situation and current news events in general, as well as talks by many men who are among the leaders in art, science, literature and other fields.

A teachers' manual, giving a detailed description of the educational programs, has been compiled and is available to all those who request it. Music work books have been arranged for use in conjunction with the music courses. These books contain songs for community singing and provide a visual aid to further individual effort.

Sixty stations will broadcast these programs in all parts of the country. Preliminary reports indicate that the number of listeners, estimated at about 60,000,000 last year, will be considerably increased this year.

Schools Use Largest Proportion of Seating Equipment

Schools, attended by about 31,000,000 pupils, are demanding in increasing quantities the products of the industry manufacturing seats for schools, churches and theaters, according to a recent statement issued by the Department of Commerce.

Approximately 41 per cent of the output of this \$40,000,000 industry was purchased by schools in 1929, and a committee from the industry has called to offer the industry's cooperation with the Department of Commerce in obtaining accurate information concerning the industry as a whole.

Wood and steel equipment are both participating in this changing demand, the report reveals, seven of the twelve products showing an upward trend in sales being made of wood and five of steel.

The concerns reporting had sales in 1929 of public seating products, exclusive of seats for public conveyances, of \$23,230,013, representing about 60 per cent of the value of all such products manufactured that year.

Of the total sales, 41 per cent was sold to schools, 40 per cent to theaters, and 18 per cent to churches, the principal types of furniture being chairs, desks, pews and chancel outfits. Most of the items for which the demand was increasing were manufactured for use in schools.

The two principal objects of the survey were attained, the report points out, in that many facts of basic importance have been determined which may be of material value in the establishment of constructive group activities or for facilitating such activities in the industry. Similar facts which may be used as standards of performance by individual concerns in appraising their operations have been ascertained.

How Seasons Affect Sales

A marked seasonality in the sales of public seating products was revealed, far more marked than in other industries for which figures are available. In the month of August, shipments are 78 per cent greater than the average monthly shipments and for September, 44 per cent, but no other months approach these figures.

The final objective of the survey, that is, a practical basis for the improvement of the effectiveness of the public seating industry in the production and distribution of its products, the report points out, will be gained only when the public seating manufacturers have individually and collectively utilized the facts ascertained as a result of this study.

What the School Can Do to Promote the Child's Welfare at Home

The school nurse, the visiting teacher and the attendance officer are the school's emissaries to the home and as such their duties must be coordinated and logically apportioned

By HENRY J. GIDEON, Director, Bureau of Compulsory Education, Board of Public Education, Philadelphia, and MRS. HENRY J. GIDEON

FOR if you suffer your people to be ill educated and their manners to be corrupted from their infancy and then punish them for crimes to which their first education disposed them, what else is to be concluded from this but that you first makes thieves and then punish them?"

It is the acceptance of the truth of this remark of Sir Thomas More's that has led us to recognize the fact that to make educational practice effec-

tive and to round out and supplement the education and training given in the school, something more must be accomplished than mere mastery of subject matter. Our conception of education today is based rather on a sense of the need of preparation for complete living. We think of the aim of education as being so to develop our thinking and so to construct our ideals that each educable person may come to realize and experience to a fuller extent the best potentialities of his nature and use them to work for the continued progress

On "graduation day" each pupil who has shown a marked improvement in health receives a trophy.



of himself and his community. In order to attain these ends it is necessary to supplement the work of the classroom teacher with services that have to do with the many adjustments of children in their different relationships with health, home, companions, community and church as well as with the teacher and pupils in the classroom.

When we think that a child is in attendance at school but five or six hours out of every twenty-four each school day and that that time represents but 12 or 14 per cent of each twenty-four hours, we realize that it behooves us in all our school relations with him to consider and learn more about the influences and activities that are his during the other 88 per cent of the time.

Fostering Healthy Attitudes

As a result there have been introduced into the schools different types of services for the purpose of fostering in every needy child, normal and healthy attitudes in and out of school. Thus we have:

1. The school medical inspector whose business it is to carry out the state requirement relating to the health of public school pupils, such as giving physical examinations to every child at least once a year; inspecting school buildings; supplying medical certificates to school authorities in the case of all pupils permanently excused from school attendance because of their inability to learn; enforcing the school vaccination law; giving physical examinations to all applicants for employment certificates; reporting promptly all cases of acute contagious diseases discovered directly or indirectly by school physicians, nurses or teachers.

2. The school nurse whose interest is not only to follow up the suggestions of the school medical inspector but also to discover and to treat, if possible, without exclusion from school all children suffering from minor contagious diseases and to give health education to children and parents with the least possible disturbance of home and school.

3. The school counselor who is concerned with the giving of educational and vocational guidance as well as with taking an active part in the social and extra-curricular life of the school unless there be a social counselor to do the latter.

4. The home room teacher whose group constitutes in the school a home situation where children bring their problems and where they have a chance to take an active part in the life of the group. Here ideals of attendance, good health, honest endeavor in studies, sports and clubs may be presented with the best assurance of their being carried over into actualities, for every home room group strives to help its members in all possible ways to attain proficiency in these elements of school life.

5. The visiting teacher or home and school visitor who bases her treatment of problem children on the fact that "useful citizenship and right living are the normal outgrowths of sound training and wholesome behavior in childhood and that the attainment of these ends is vitally affected by environmental influences and by the child's attitude toward himself, toward others and toward the opportunities and obstacles he may encounter. His scholastic progress and deportment in school, his heredity, his emotional nature, his interests, ambitions and dislikes—these become the subjects of the visiting teacher's inquiry and take her into the home, the classroom or wherever a situation exists that may help to reveal and explain the causes of his difficulties."

6. The attendance officer whose primary interest is in the matter of enrollment and attendance, the enrollment being obtained through an efficient school census which ought to see to it that every educable child in the community within the age limits of the compulsory education law is on the roll of the school at all times or is under private instruction. In the matter of attendance the attendance officer is interested in obtaining mental and spiritual as well as bodily presence at school.

Briefly this defines the duties and objectives of the several outstanding agencies of the school that are working toward a more complete understanding of the child and his needs. Of these, the special school representatives in the home are the school nurse, the attendance officer and the visiting teacher or home and school visitor. Their work and aims will be discussed here in detail.

In the old days before compulsory education laws went into effect, the problem of the unadjusted child was speedily solved. If a child proved burdensome or troublesome in any way, he was usually found unfit for the school society and thrown out mercilessly into a larger society whose business it was to cope with him as best it could. So, too, in the early days of health work in the schools did the idea of exclusion hold sway. At the slightest symptom of illness or infection the child was sent home to conditions about which the school knew nothing, there to get well as best he could.

How the School Nurse Serves

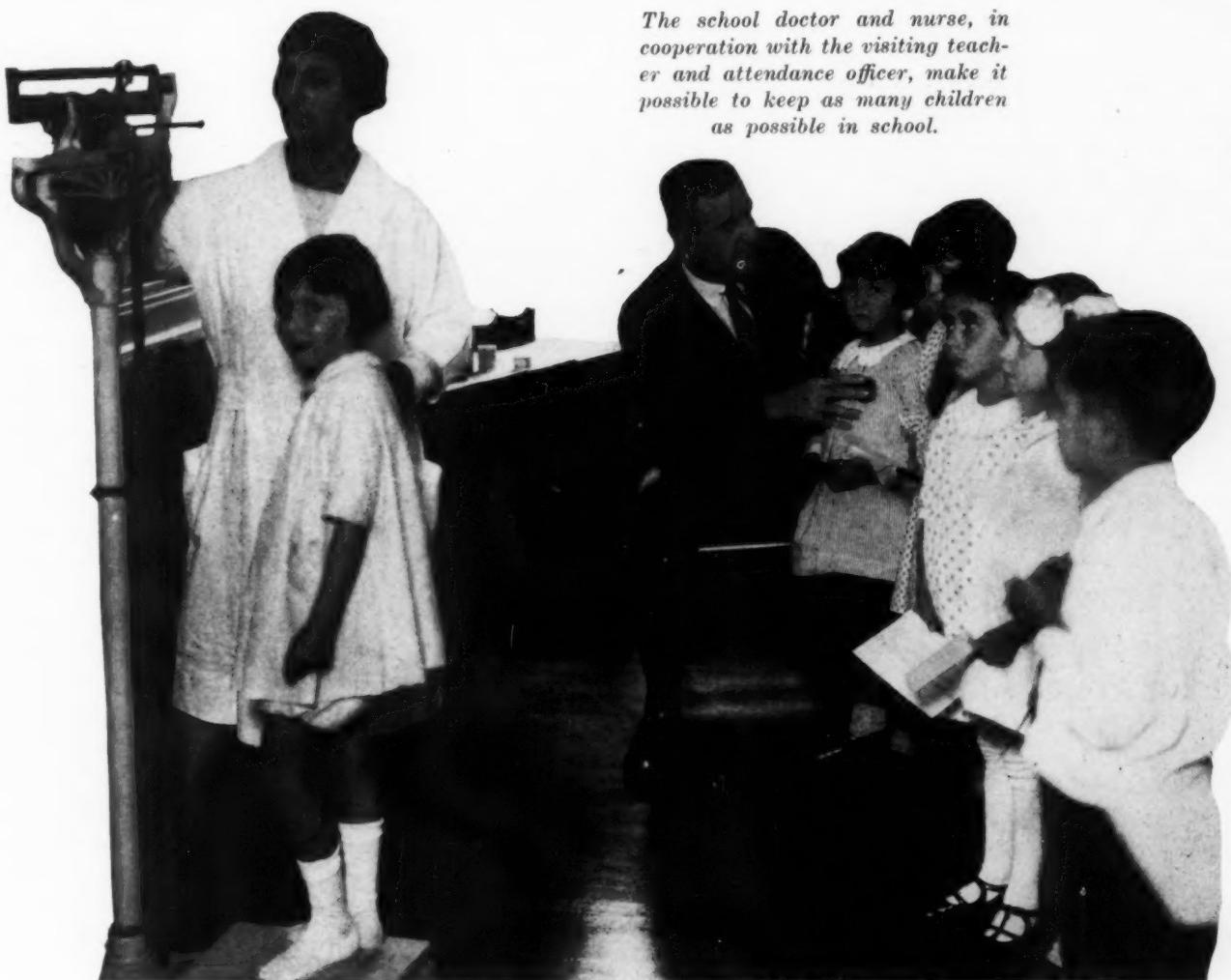
The new policy is one of prevention and cure. Instead of being excluded and neglected when they have such minor contagious diseases as ringworm, scabies, impetigo, inflamed eyes, discharging ears, sores, cuts or infections, children are now treated by the school nurse in school and are not sent home, where conditions may only aggravate their difficulties or where it is likely that nothing will be done about them. To-day the nurse visits the homes,

points out dangers and instructs mothers on the care, diet, sleep and general health of themselves and their families. In the school she makes weekly or fortnightly class inspections to check up on possible cases of disease and to help carry on the health work of the school. She gives talks on the care of the teeth and eyes, on proper diet and hours

economic problems of the world, problems that are, it would seem, as old as life itself.

The ideal school nurse of to-day, therefore, no longer confines herself to the mere routine of follow up and inspection. She is a social worker who has special knowledge and training in health work. She has become one of the principal's first

The school doctor and nurse, in cooperation with the visiting teacher and attendance officer, make it possible to keep as many children as possible in school.



of sleep. In many communities she has organized what are called "little mothers" classes where she undertakes to teach older sisters who must care for the little ones at home something of the proper treatment and training of babies.

The scientific development of her follow up work has revolutionized the method of school medical inspection whose purpose it is to keep as many children as possible in school. Her policy is one of prevention first if that is possible, cure when necessary. Through her regular school inspections and her home visits she is able to do much in educating parents and children in matters of health, thus minimizing the development and spread of disease. In the home she is faced not only with the problems of ignorance, sanitation, uncleanliness and ill health, but also with all the social and

assistants, the home health visitor and the mother's friend and adviser. In many communities she is the attendance officer as well. In Minneapolis, for example, she makes all first visits to homes in case of absence. Since a high percentage of all absence is due to the sickness of the child or members of the family, it is felt that the nurse by training and experience is better fitted in such cases to give advice and help than any other school visitor.

In her home visits the first care of the school nurse is to gain the good will of parents. Her great weapons are sympathy, courtesy, cheerfulness, kindness, genuine interest and child love. More is required of the successful school nurse than training and experience, for she should enter the home with the zeal and love of a missionary. She must have high ideals, tact, patience, gentle-

ness. She should have a thorough understanding of the aims of the school, for it is her privilege to interpret the school to the home as well as the home to the school. She should be eager and willing to cooperate with other school representatives in the home. She should constantly keep before teachers and parents the desirability of making the school the center of the social life of the district, since it is here that everybody meets on a basis of common interest regardless of race, color or creed. She should realize that the normal development of a healthy child is the important work of the school and she should know that all problems of ventilation, light, food, drink, clothing, work, rest, play and cleanliness have a powerful effect on the health, the school progress and the social development of every child.

It is not the scientific diagnosis or the careful physical examination that makes the medical inspection of schools a blessing to children; it is rather the daily, untiring work and devotion of the school nurse with the resulting preventions, remedies and cures. We cannot be too careful in our selection of so important a school representative in the home, for in the eyes of many she is the friend and confidante of the community and one of its most powerful forces for good.

The Attendance Officer Not a Policeman

Many years ago John Ruskin said that the hope for the success of a democratic system of government must rest on the number of educated persons that it has. It must have been some such belief as that which led to the first compulsory education laws of the country. It is interesting to note the changes in attitudes that have taken place in the attendance service since its beginning less than fifty years ago. In the earlier years attendance service was thought of almost entirely as law enforcement. It was confidently believed at that time that the attendance of absentees could be assured by first giving warning to the children or to the parents, depending upon who happened to be the offender, and then applying the penalties prescribed by the law. Experience has shown us, especially in more recent years, the futility, in some instances not unmixed with barbaric cruelty, of such a procedure.

Of course the attendance officer is at times a disciplinarian, but so also at times is the parent in the home and the teacher in the classroom. We all realize that on occasions obedience to law must be obtained by the use of authority. The duty of the attendance officer is a legal one, it is true, but the use of coercive measures should be and usually is the last step and not the first in the process of treatment. To-day we are pretty well agreed that

to have an officer of the law force children into school is an anachronism. Every intelligent person who has made a study of the absence problem realizes that preventable absence is a symptom of some form of maladjustment in the school, in the home, in the community or in the child himself and that there can be no set formula that will prove an infallible criterion for the treatment of each problem presented.

Trained persons who now undertake to deal with absence follow the well known steps of the case method used by the physician and in later years by the social worker—investigation, diagnosis, treatment and follow up. These are logical divisions, but the first three may be carried on simultaneously. The successful attendance officer of to-day, consciously or unconsciously, follows these steps.

The point of view is held in some quarters that the legal authority that the attendance officer is given by the law is an obstacle, or at least a material handicap in any constructive work with the child and his family. It is believed that the mere visit of an attendance officer to a home carries with it the implication that the child or his parents are hovering under the shadow of the law; that intelligent and well-to-do parents resent the visit of the attendance officer because of this implication and that poorer families fear her.

It may be true that parents in the better grade of homes who are inclined to be touchy and somewhat snobbish might resent inquiry about an absentee child because such inquiry suggests that the school believes that such parents are not doing their full duty toward the child. But it certainly is not true that there need be or is any fear of the attendance officer in the great mass of homes visited, although it certainly would be true if she approaches the family merely as a law enforcing agent. Usually she is the friend and adviser of the family and she is frequently called into consultation by them on matters that have nothing to do with the school.

Winning Cooperation Through Sympathy

The attitude of the family toward the attendance officer depends upon her personality, her training and, above all, upon her fundamental conception of the philosophy of the job. If her personality is pleasing and she is gracious, sympathetic and dignified, her influence in the home will be that of any other helpful person visiting it as a representative of the school. If her training has given her a proper conception of the work of the school and the problems in home life, the psychology of childhood and the resources of child welfare and community work, her service will be construc-

tive and helpful and not legalistic. Her philosophy in regard to her job will be a guide to her in her dealings with the many-sided problems she will face daily. She will understand that frequently the indirect method is the better; that suggestion and choice of plans are usually much more likely to bring results than directions and commands; that self-help is the most effective kind of help and that in the end the winning over of a child and his family to want to do the thing they ought to do is after all the most basically sound and satisfying procedure.

Other Agencies May Be Utilized

It is obvious that no attendance officer is expected to be omniscient and that no one person, no matter how intelligent or well trained she may be, could possibly possess within herself all the resources or all the technical knowledge and skill needed to treat adequately every type of problem presented by absentee children. Such children present problems as varied and as complicated as life itself.

She must be prepared, therefore, not only to use her own knowledge and influence in each situation, but, when necessary, also to seek the aid of other individuals and agencies trained and equipped to help her. The sources of help include the relatives and friends of the child, the family physician and the hospitals, the child guidance clinics, the social welfare agencies, the courts, the church, the recreational agencies, the police and, in the school system itself, the department of school medical inspection, the psychological clinic, the social service staff, the junior employment service, the school counselor, the visiting teacher and the school nurse. If the attendance officer has charge of the case, it is her business to mobilize and utilize these forces to the end that the child may be able and willing to attend school.

Not the least important of her duties is that of building up in the child and in the home right attitudes toward the school and toward life in general, for if the child is forced back into school unwillingly, it is altogether likely that he will become a disrupting influence in the classroom and will make no effort really to participate in the life of the school.

More and more, experience is showing that the whole field of attendance work is an integral part of the educative process and should no longer be considered in the light of a mere enforcing agency which exists and functions in an organization but is not made a vital part of the school life. The organization of the staff and the methods of work used are of great importance, but in the final analysis the value of the service depends upon the daily contribution the individual worker gives to

her job. It is and ought to be the aim of the attendance officer to hold before herself a high ideal of service so that she may be stimulated to develop herself personally for her work and to find new resources for helping her in her service to children. No person can be successful or happy who does not hold a high regard for the work she is doing. The attendance officer, therefore, should have a high respect for her job and an understanding sense of its importance and its relation to other educational activities. With this attitude she will, in the face of discouragement and failure, for these are inevitable in human affairs, continue to work happily, with earnestness, sympathy, faith, vision and purpose.

Her constant study of the causes underlying absence leads the attendance officer to realize that many of the cases that come to her might not arise were there within the school itself some organized system of social service, some person whose business it was to note the first stages of a maladjustment, which leads eventually to truancy and delinquency. She knows that if the schools are to make the most of the unique positions they occupy in carrying forward a constructive program in preventing delinquency and truancy, it will be necessary to have within and as a part of the educational system a more definitely organized method of social service. Since truancy is but one form of manifestation of a maladjustment somewhere, the reasons that lie back of any such manifestations are far more significant than the forms they may take. There are in attendance at school every day many children who are quite as definitely problem children as is the truant, although the forms of manifestation may be and often are less obvious. It is a perception of this wider phase of work with problem children that is leading educational administrators and thinkers to realize that the logical place for all types of work with them lies within the school itself and must form a regular part of the school's work. For this reason there has developed more recently the work of the visiting teacher, or the home and school visitor, designed to help the individual child in all instances of maladjustment.

The Duties of the Visiting Teacher

Howard Nudd, director, Public Education Association of New York, who is deeply interested in the extension of the visiting teacher movement through the Commonwealth Fund, has said of the visiting teacher: "She must have not only the essential qualities of personality but the technical equipment needed to understand and to deal effectively with the factors that comprise the specific problems in her field.

"To cooperate intelligently with teachers and school officials in the discovery and removal of handicapping conditions in the school itself, she must know professionally, by training and experience, the aims and procedure of the school. To aid parents and social agencies to cooperate effectively with each other and with the school in achieving an adjustment of the child's special difficulties, she must be able, through training and experience in social case work, to seek tactfully and skillfully for underlying causes in the home and the community and to understand clearly what social resources can or cannot be employed in any given case.

"Her services are devoted primarily to the needs of those individual children who present problems of scholarship or conduct of a baffling, erratic, troublesome or suspicious nature, or who show signs of apparent neglect or other difficulties which the regular staff members of the school find themselves unable to understand or to deal with unaided. Such children include those who, for some unaccountable reason, fall below standard in scholarship although they are not subnormal; the repeater, the restive, the overage, the precocious and the gifted who have difficulty in finding full scope or wholesome outlet for their interests and abilities; the adolescent who appears unable, without special guidance, to avoid the pitfalls he encounters; those whose conduct gives suspicion of undesirable companionship or unwholesome interest and shows tendencies toward unsocial behavior or delinquency; the irritable, the worried, the violent tempered and the repressed; those who are always stumbling into trouble; the neglected, abused and overworked, whose home conditions appear so adverse as to require special interest and help from the school.

"The value of the visiting teacher's work is naturally in proportion to the extent to which she can get at the trouble early, while it is still in the preventive stage. Retardation, chronic nonattendance, truancy, delinquency and similar forms of acute maladjustment are usually the outcome of a series of antecedent factors, at first relatively simple in character but growing with increasing momentum in seriousness and difficulty of solution."

A Work of Prevention

It is obvious that the work of the visiting teacher becomes, then, one of prevention. She views the difficulties of the child from all angles and appeals for aid to whatever source of help she thinks best. These sources of help are the same as those used by the attendance officer—the relatives and friends of the child, the family physician and

the hospitals, the child guidance clinics, the social welfare agencies, the courts, the church, the recreational agencies, the police and, in the school system itself, the department of school medical inspection, the psychological clinic, the junior employment service, the school counselor, the school nurse and the attendance officer.

How Shall Cases Be Assigned?

In a community that is not supplied by the school board with all three types of this service through the appointment of three different and distinct officials but is supplied with only one person, no matter what the title of that person may be, she ought to carry into the home the kinds of service already described as far as it is in her power to do so. The fact that there is in the community but one home representative from the school would suggest that the number of pupils to be served is not large. Quantitatively, therefore, her job would not be too heavy; qualitatively she would have a job that would challenge the best that her experience, training and personality have to offer. If all three of these services are provided by the school, this important question arises: On what basis are cases to be assigned?

It is a well recognized principle of social work that only one agency should deal with a family at a time. If, for example, a family agency is helping a family, that service is extended to include the children as well. A service that deals exclusively with child welfare would, therefore, not consider for a moment going in on a case so long as the family agency is active. Jewish welfare service throughout the country now acts upon the principle that if upon investigation by the family agency to which it is first reported it is found that the child's problem is an individual one and not merely a phase of a family situation, the case is then and not until then referred to the children's welfare service. The social agencies go even further and say that there should be but one social welfare worker in the family at one time.

The interesting question now arises: Should school representatives follow this same practice? That is, when the school nurse is active on a case, should the others keep out or when the attendance officer is handling the case should the visiting teacher and school nurse step out? In fact one might go further and ask if a social welfare agency is handling a family or a child in the family, should the school representatives keep out?

Mr. Nudd takes issue with the social agencies who say that there should be but one representative in the home at one time. By way of illustration he reminds us that we call many persons into our homes for service—the physician and the plumber

for example. Mr. Nudd facetiously remarks that when the doctor is called for the purpose of prescribing for Mary's cold, he is not requested while he happens to be in the house to look over the leaky faucets in the kitchen. When the plumber calls to look after a faulty drain he is not requested to examine Mary because she has been running a fever. Mr. Nudd points out that there are different types of service and there certainly can be no objection to having experts representing these different types visit the home at the same time. If we accept this point of view with regard to visitors from the school, indeed we must proceed with great caution. Certainly if a child were ill two physicians would not be brought in on the case at the same time except in consultation, when it is understood that one of them retains full responsibility for the case and the other is merely an adviser. Even in such cases there is a private conference of the physicians and an agreement or understood disagreement before the results of the consultation are brought to the family. But even in case of disagreement the family physician continues to be responsible unless or until he is replaced by the family with another physician.

Why Coordination Is Necessary

In a school system which provides for all three types of these school representatives in the home, it is essential that they be so organized and coordinated that the work may be carried on with the greatest efficiency and with the least possible overlapping in order that there may be no just cause for accusing the schools of squandering public funds. The work of the school nurse, which deals with the matter of health and is closely related to that of the medical inspector, is a distinct type of service and is not so likely to overlap with the work of the attendance officer or the visiting teacher. But it is altogether likely that the work of the attendance officer and the visiting teacher may overlap since both approach the problem from the social case work point of view seeking to find the underlying causes of the maladjustment and since both are likely to arrive eventually at the same source of the difficulty. The only difference is that the attendance officer, to quote Mr. Nudd again, has assigned to her the problem of the child conspicuous by his absence, whereas the visiting teacher studies the causes of the maladjustment of the child conspicuous by his presence in the school. It is not safe, however, to differentiate between the cases for the attendance officer and the cases for the visiting teacher on the basis of absence from school, because the child who is conspicuous by his absence and who is handled by the attendance officer may become conspicuous by his presence

when the attendance officer succeeds in getting him in the school unless the attendance officer has taken it upon herself to seek in the school itself those adjustments that seem necessary in each particular case. But when she goes into that type of treatment and follow-up work, she is pretty sure to be treading on the toes of the visiting teacher who feels that all such activity in the school belongs rightfully to her.

Planning an Ideal Child Helping Service

It is an old adage that to swap horses in mid-stream is dangerous. That philosophy may, I think, well be applied to the work of the attendance officer and the visiting teacher. It is clear that no truly constructive and lasting work can be done by the attendance officer if she is to be denied an opportunity to carry out the logical steps in the process of her social case work with the child who is referred to her. It occurs to me that with the development and growth of these two types of service, there has, unfortunately, sprung up a confusion of titles. It is evident that aside from the law enforcing phase of her work the attendance officer should and does go about her work with the child and the family exactly as the visiting teacher except that, as I have already pointed out, she is denied in the schools the opportunity to go on with the constructive follow-up work.

It seems, therefore, that a glance at the future of this work in the school and the organization of it leads us to the realization that the attendance officer whom I have described as essentially a social case worker should eventually be replaced in name by the term of visiting teacher or preferably the home and school visitor as described, and that the attendance officer as such should be the school's source of last appeal and should be regarded as a law enforcer only. In such a capacity she would make few if any home visits and would sit in judgment on cases which the home school visitor feels cannot be corrected without the help of the law. It would become her business to weigh carefully all evidence presented both by the school and the child, prescribe further actions, see that they are carried out and take whatever legal action is necessary in cases where such suggestions are not followed. Such an attendance officer, it need hardly be said, would represent much greater training and experience than that of the present attendance officer or visiting teacher, for she would have to be skilled in her learning and experience and her ability to diagnose and prescribe; she would be far visioned, just and forceful, and here her authority of the law would be significant as never before both in the home and in the school.

These various kinds of child helping services

that have grown up in our schools should be standardized and coordinated. Admittedly they are an important part of our educational work and should be included in a comprehensive educational program. Unfortunately at the present time each of these related groups is attempting to work out independently its own destiny. One group establishes the National Vocational Guidance Association, another the National Visiting Teachers' Association and another the National League of Compulsory Education Officials. Unfortunately, too, their conferences are held independently of each other and each works out its plans of improving its service without the help and advice of the other. These groups need to get together so that each may learn more about the objectives and activities of the other. Why should not the National Education Association undertake to present to the country a program which shall set up what seems to be an ideal child helping service? Such a service might be known as pupil personnel service and might include some such activities as the following:

1. An effective school census to obtain and maintain a complete enrollment of school children.
2. A home and school visiting service conducted according to the accepted methods of the visiting teacher and the modern attendance officer.
3. Educational and vocational guidance service in higher schools.
4. A junior employment service for the certification and placement of young workers, for their supervision and protection while they are employed and for making industrial surveys and occupational studies for use in the schools.
5. A law enforcement service with authority to hold quasi-judicial hearings and, when necessary, to initiate and conduct hearings in court.

Survey Shows One-Room School Is Fast Disappearing

The average one-room rural school teacher is a woman about twenty-seven years old, with a total education of only four years and one month above grade school and a teaching experience of less than three years. She receives an annual salary of \$874, has twenty-two farm children under her care and is employed for 152 days in the year, according to a recent study by the Office of Education.

Although one-room rural schools are disappearing at the rate of 4,200 per year, they still serve more rural children than any other type of school. There are, at present, 153,000 one-room rural schools in the United States.

The report continues as follows:

"If all the teachers of one-teacher schools stood side by side, their ranks would extend in an unbroken line for eighty-seven and one-tenth miles. Assuming this army of teachers were arranged in such a way that the one having received the least amount of training stood at one end and the one having received the largest amount of training at the other, a person reviewing this company would find it necessary to walk a distance of eight and one-half miles before coming to a teacher with a training equivalent to two years of high school.

"One would have to walk half the entire distance before approaching a teacher with training equal to high school graduation, and would have to continue his walk for a total distance of sixty-seven and three-fifths miles before reaching the first teacher with the equivalent of two years of normal school education. The jaunt would be continued to within thirteen miles of the end of the line before one who had the equivalent of a college education would be reached."

Pennsylvania Plans for Safety Patrols in Schools

Completion of a plan for the organization of uniform school safety patrols throughout Pennsylvania was announced recently by Dr. James N. Rule, state superintendent of public instruction. Organization of such patrols was authorized at the last session of the general assembly and was approved by Governor Gifford Pinchot.

The plan is the result of the combined effort of the department of public instruction, bureau of motor vehicles of the department of revenue, and the department of highways.

The purpose of safety patrols in the schools is to assist in training school children where and how to cross streets and highways, Doctor Rule explained. Under the plan to be submitted to Governor Pinchot for his approval this purpose is attained by having patrols direct children and not traffic.

"Any attempt at the control of traffic by safety patrols is not recommended," Doctor Rule made clear. "In fact it is prohibited by law. Direction of traffic is distinctly a police function requiring adult judgment and should not be delegated to children of school age.

"The use of patrols for safety work provides an opportunity for pupils to assume the responsibility of protecting their schoolmates in a definite way. These organizations offer excellent training in civic responsibility."

What School Staffs Spend and Save

An analysis of the relationship existing between the expenditures and the salaries of the administrative and instructional staffs of schools

By W. HARDIN HUGHES, Director, Bureau of Administrative Investigation and Research,
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THE significance of studies having to do with the costs of living is coming to be generally recognized. During the past ten years, in fact, practically every award made by government arbitration boards has been determined in a large measure by estimates of the costs of living. The same is true of decisions of the minimum wage boards of the various states and of innumerable voluntary arbitration boards in the settlement of industrial disputes.

Those responsible for the administration of teachers' salaries have likewise come to assign greater importance than formerly to cost of living figures in the economic adjustment of remuneration. As stated in a previous article,¹ at least one

survey staff has incorporated in its recommendations the provision that "whenever a new salary schedule is adopted it shall be in conformity with the local costs of living as of the date of adoption and that when, thereafter, the index of the cost of living as determined by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics varies from the index of the last date of change in the salary schedule, either way, by an amount approximating 10 per cent, it shall be the duty of the school authorities to adjust the salary schedule to conform to the changes in the cost of living in the local community."

This principle, if put into operation, however, would take care only of adjustments necessitated by changes in the costs of living and would not be effective in determining the basic levels at which salaries should be placed. Without the application

¹Hughes, W. Hardin, The Continuous Salary Survey—An Aid to Economic Adjustment, *The NATION'S SCHOOLS*, May, 1931, p. 53.

TABLE I—EXPENDITURES AND SAVINGS OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF, PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS, 1929-30

Items	Administrators and Supervisors Median \$	%	Married Teachers, Secondary Median \$	Men % Median \$	Unmarried Teachers, Secondary Median \$	%	Unmarried Women Teachers, Kindergarten and Elementary Median \$	%
Housing and food	1,800	41.9	1,477	48.3	841	33.9	876	41.5
Clothing	433	10.1	313	10.2	326	13.1	321	15.2
Transportation	475	11.0	375	12.3	264	10.6	130	6.1
Recreation	125	2.9	106	3.5	181	7.3	126	5.9
Health	175	4.1	141	4.6	88	3.6	112	5.3
Professional growth	75	1.7	69	2.3	73	2.9	75	3.5
Other expenses	320	7.4	240	7.9	192	7.7	170	8.0
Savings (based on total income)	900	20.9	335	10.9	519	20.9	306	14.5
TOTAL	4,303	100	3,056	100	2,484	100	2,116	100

of other principles of adjustment it would be impossible to determine how high or how low salaries should be in any given year. No one would be so rash as to assume that salaries in 1914, for example, had been properly adjusted either to the

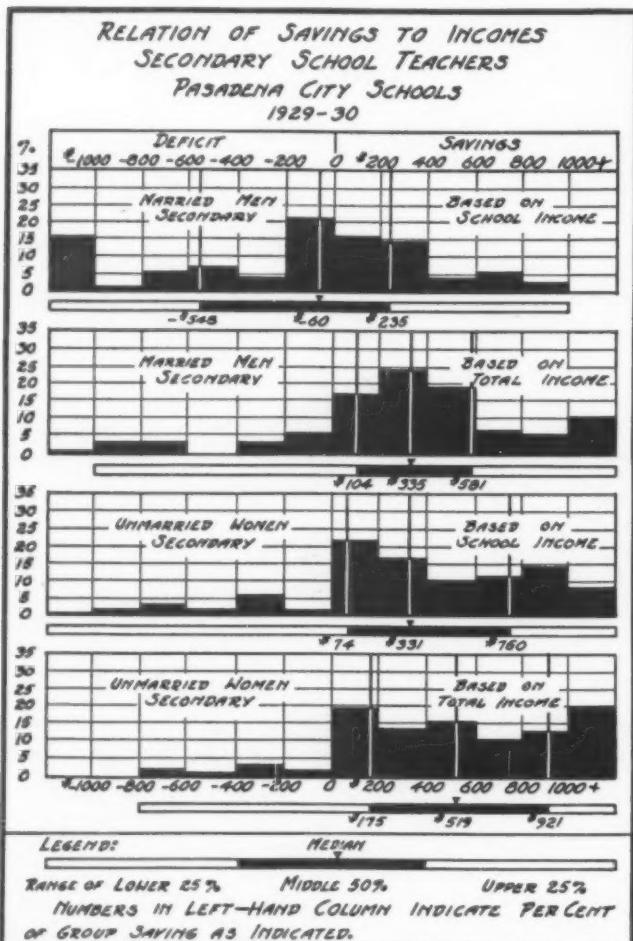


Chart 1 can be read as follows: Fifteen per cent of the married men teachers of the secondary schools would have reported deficits of \$1,000 or more each had they depended entirely upon their school alone. The rest of the chart can be read in a similar way.

actual costs of living or to standards of living.

The purpose of the present study, therefore, is to analyze the expenditures of the teaching staff of the schools of Pasadena, Calif., and to set forth the relationship existing between these expenditures and salaries at the various levels. The findings are based on confidential information obtained by a carefully prepared questionnaire. More than six hundred members of the administrative and instructional staff cooperated in the study. While the results are no more reliable than the data supplied by individuals, we have reason to believe that those who contributed the information were conscientious in making their reports.

In presenting the findings of this investigation, no attempt will be made to state detailed conclusions as to whether salaries are too high or too low

or whether the expenditures of teachers are properly balanced. Such conclusions are left to the reader.

First, let us take a bird's-eye view of the findings as presented in Table I. Here may be seen the comparative itemized expenditures of administrators, married men and unmarried women teachers in the secondary schools, and unmarried women teachers in the elementary and kindergarten grades. In this portion of the report, total incomes rather than school salaries are used as the basis from which savings are determined.

In Chart 1, the comparative distribution of savings for married men and unmarried women in

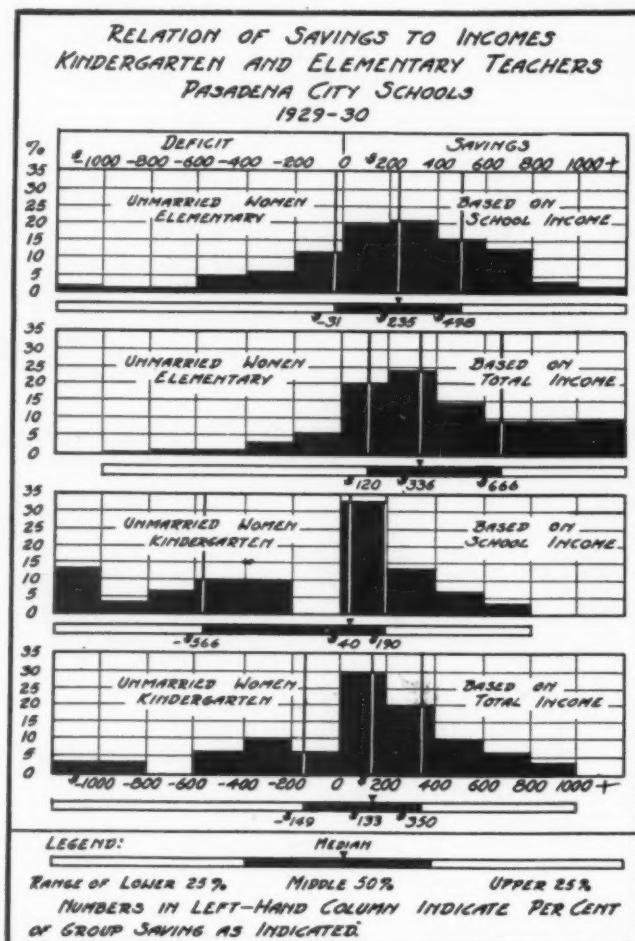


Chart 2.

the secondary schools should be noted. For each group two distributions are charted, one based on school income and the other on total income. If the married men teachers had received no income other than their school salaries, more than 50 per cent of them would have had a deficit at the end of the year. Income from other sources, however, enabled the median man teacher to report a saving of \$335. This amount, as will be noted, is \$184 less than the total savings of the median unmarried woman in the same schools.

The wide range of savings for each group of teachers may be seen in the graph. Some save \$1,000 or more while others have deficits in excess of \$1,000. Twenty-five per cent of the unmarried women in the secondary schools save \$921 or more yearly, while another 25 per cent of this group save \$74 or less. For all groups, savings are larger on account of outside income than they would otherwise be. In the case of men, some of the additional income was due to the fact that their wives were teaching or otherwise gainfully occupied.

Chart 2 presents facts similar to those of Chart 1. It will be noted, however, that the distributions

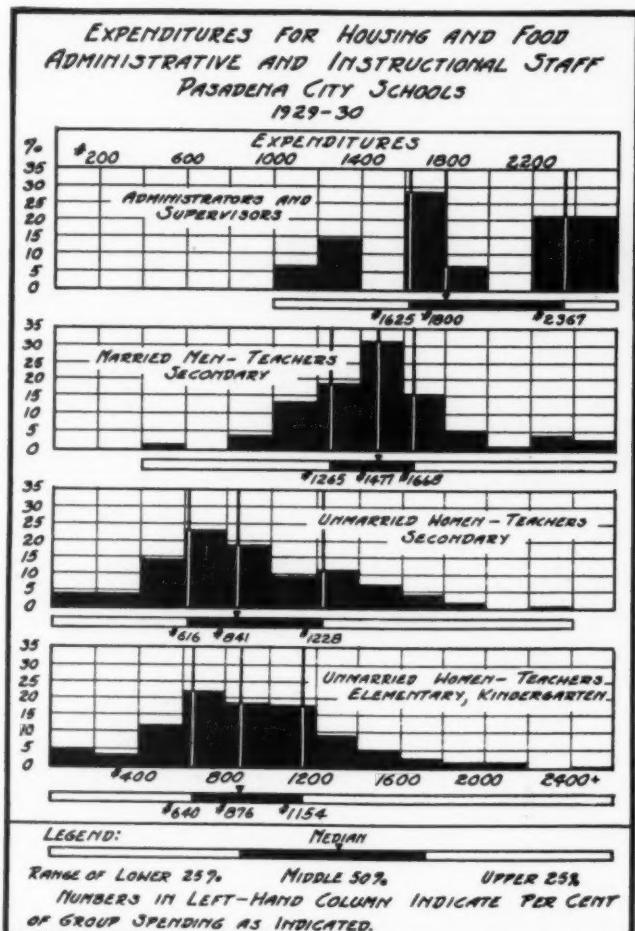


Chart 3.

of savings for these groups of teachers are not materially affected by being based on total income. The wide ranges of savings are in evidence for these teachers, however, as well as for other groups.

The largest portion of expenditures is for housing and food. The former includes such items as rent and house operation. Heat, light, gas, domestic service, telephone, housecleaning, laundry, bedding and house furnishings have been included in this general item of expense. The expense for raw materials, the actual expense incident to

its preparation, the expense for service connected with the food item and the amounts paid for food outside the home have all been included in this section of the study. The items of housing and food have been combined because of the difficulty,

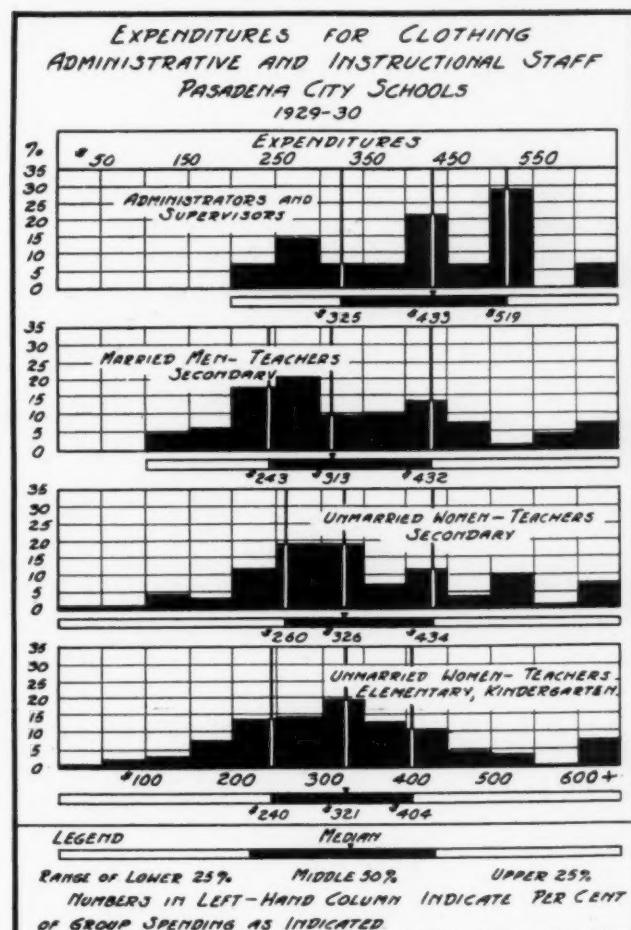


Chart 4.

encountered in many cases, of separating them from each other.

It should be noted in this connection that those who owned their own homes counted as expense an amount equivalent to the rent that their homes would have commanded.

In Chart 3 are presented the distributions of expenditures for housing and food. Again we see the advantages that unmarried women have over married men in similar positions. While the latter spend \$1,477 for housing and food, the former spend \$841, a difference of \$636 annually. The expenditures for housing and food provided for dependents are included in both cases. It will be noted that the expenditures for unmarried women in the secondary and in the elementary school divisions are practically the same.

The percentage distributions of expenditures for clothing are set forth in Chart 4. Except for the administrative and supervisory group, the

amounts spent for this item are practically the same for both men and women whether in the secondary or in the elementary school divisions. It will be noted, however, that the married men spend slightly less than the unmarried women for clothing. In all cases the expenditures for dependents are included.

What Is Spent for Transportation

In Chart 5 the expenditures for transportation are presented. The cost for automobile operation and for other transportation was considered in this part of the study. The cost of automobile maintenance and the amount of depreciation at 20 per cent of the original cost of the automobile formed the basis of the estimates used. Vacation expenditures for transportation were not included.

It will be noted that the costs of transportation varied from practically nothing to amounts exceeding \$600 a year. In most cases, as would nat-

urally be expected, the higher expenditures were reported by those who possessed the higher priced automobiles.

In Chart 6 may be seen the percentage distribution of expenditures for recreation. It will be noted that the married men and their families spend the smallest amounts for this purpose. The largest amounts are spent by the unmarried women of the secondary schools. In these figures as in all others presented in the accompanying tables and charts, dependents have been included.

With respect to expenditures for health the usual variation of amounts was found. Those providing the information included amounts paid doctors, dentists, druggists, hospitals, and opticians. Administrators and supervisors reported the highest expenditures for this item. The unmarried women in the secondary schools reported the lowest amounts. Very high expenditures in a small number of cases were especially noted. In most cases

TABLE II—EXPENDITURES, INSURANCE, AND TOTAL SAVINGS IN RELATION TO SCHOOL SALARIES OF UNMARRIED WOMEN TEACHERS, ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY

Items	Salary Levels	Median Each Level	Total Expenditure Median	Index Numbers Based on Medians
Housing and food	\$3,000 - 3,500	\$1,350	\$865	156
	2,500 - 2,999	925		107
	2,000 - 2,499	842		97
	1,500 - 1,999	746		86
Clothing	3,000 - 3,500	450	322	140
	2,500 - 2,999	320		99
	2,000 - 2,499	323		100
	1,500 - 1,999	327		102
Transportation	3,000 - 3,500	275	181	152
	2,500 - 2,999	288		159
	2,000 - 2,499	119		66
	1,500 - 1,999	134		74
Recreation	3,000 - 3,500	200	135	148
	2,500 - 2,999	208		154
	2,000 - 2,499	119		88
	1,500 - 1,999	134		99
Health	3,000 - 3,500	125	108	116
	2,500 - 2,999	108		100
	2,000 - 2,499	106		98
	1,500 - 1,999	92		85
Professional growth	3,000 - 3,500	88	75	117
	2,500 - 2,999	72		96
	2,000 - 2,499	80		107
	1,500 - 1,999	64		85
Insurance	3,000 - 3,500	7,500	2,240	335
	2,500 - 2,999	4,167		186
	2,000 - 2,499	2,531		113
	1,500 - 1,999	1,036		46
Total savings (based on school salary only)	3,000 - 3,500	150	232	65
	2,500 - 2,999	505		218
	2,000 - 2,499	275		119
	1,500 - 1,999	59		25

TABLE III—EXPENDITURES, INSURANCE AND TOTAL SAVINGS IN RELATION TO TOTAL INCOME OF MARRIED MEN TEACHERS, PASADENA CITY SCHOOLS, 1929-30

<i>Items</i>	<i>Total Income Levels</i>	<i>Median Each Level</i>	<i>Total Expenditure Median</i>	<i>Index Numbers Based on Medians</i>
Housing and food	\$4,000 up	\$1,700	\$1,477	115.1
	3,500 - 3,999	1,625		110.0
	3,000 - 3,499	1,425		96.5
	2,500 - 2,999	1,458		98.7
	2,000 - 2,499	1,225		82.9
Clothing	4,000 up	450	313	143.8
	3,500 - 3,999	375		120.1
	3,000 - 3,499	325		103.8
	2,500 - 2,999	281		89.8
	2,000 - 2,499	269		85.9
Transportation	4,000 up	400	375	106.7
	3,500 - 3,999	475		126.7
	3,000 - 3,499	428		113.3
	2,500 - 2,999	325		86.7
	2,000 - 2,499	325		86.7
Recreation	4,000 up	125	106	117.9
	3,500 - 3,999	183		172.6
	3,000 - 3,499	113		106.6
	2,500 - 2,999	89		83.9
	2,000 - 2,499	44		41.5
Health	4,000 up	125	141	88.6
	3,500 - 3,999	138		97.9
	3,000 - 3,499	175		124.1
	2,500 - 2,999	96		68.1
	2,000 - 2,499	92		65.2
Professional growth	4,000 up	175	69	253.6
	3,500 - 3,999	60		86.9
	3,000 - 3,499	69		100.0
	2,500 - 2,999	66		95.7
	2,000 - 2,499	75		108.7
Insurance	4,000 up	5,025	5,783	86.9
	3,500 - 3,999	6,500		112.4
	3,000 - 3,499	7,000		121.0
	2,500 - 2,999	5,029		87.0
	2,000 - 2,499	6,025		104.2
Savings (based on total income)	4,000 up	800	335	238.8
	3,500 - 3,999	575		171.6
	3,000 - 3,499	275		82.1
	2,500 - 2,999	242		72.2
	2,000 - 2,499	175		52.2

these were the result of prolonged sickness of teachers or of their immediate dependents.

The reported expenditures for professional growth did not vary widely from group to group. As may be seen in Table I, the median amounts were \$75, \$69, \$73 and \$75 for the four groups, respectively. Few indeed spent more than \$150 a year for professional growth. This item as defined for purposes of this study included tuition, dues and memberships in professional organizations, books and professional magazines.

In Chart 7 may be seen the extent to which administrators and the instructional staff have invested in life insurance. The amounts given are maturity values of the policies held. It will be

noted that a considerable number of teachers have practically no insurance. Approximately 40 per cent of the unmarried women in the secondary schools possess no life insurance. Some teachers, however, have \$22,000 or more. Among the administrators and supervisors \$30,000 was the largest amount reported.

Salaries and Expenses

Table II reveals something of the relationship existing between salary levels and itemized expenditures. This is expressed in index numbers based on the median in each case. For example, the median amount spent for housing and food by all teachers in this particular group is \$865. The

median amount spent by teachers whose salaries lie between \$3,000 and \$3,500 is \$1,350 or 56 per cent higher than the median amount for all. In this way we arrive at the index number 156, the number in the upper right corner of the table. The other index numbers are derived in similar fashion.

We are now prepared to interpret Table II. It will be noted that the expenditures for housing and food increase gradually with successive increases of \$500 in salary until \$3,000 is reached, when the teachers of this group make a "splurge," so to speak. The index numbers 86, 97, 107 and finally 156 are evidence of this fact.

Clothing Costs Vary Little

Examining the index numbers for clothing, we find a similar situation. Among the teachers of the three lower salary levels the amounts spent for clothing were fairly uniform. The marked increase in expenditures for clothing came in the highest salary level, namely, \$3,000 to \$3,500. The index number for expenditure at the salary level is 140, or 40 per cent higher than for the group as a whole.

Transportation and recreation each became conspicuously more expensive for women teachers at the \$2,500 salary level. The expenditures for these

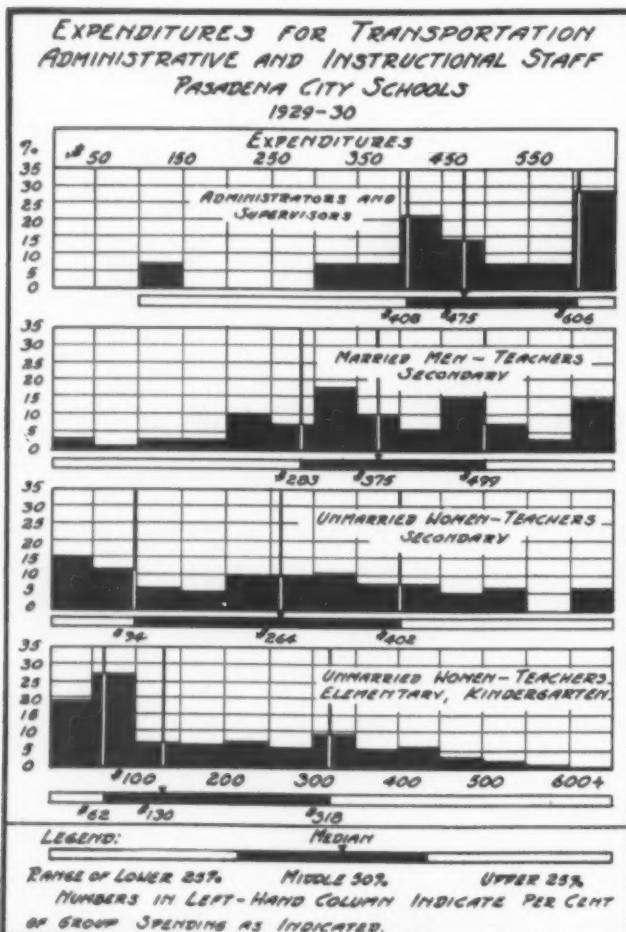


Chart 5.

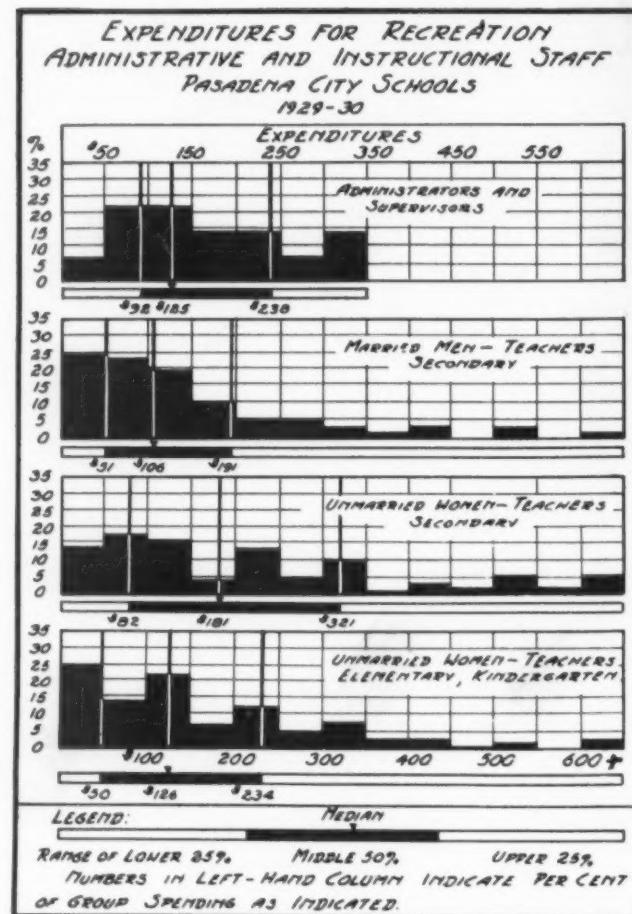


Chart 6.

items were practically the same for teachers in the two highest salary levels.

The most positive relationship, however, is between the salary level and the amount of insurance held. It should be noted that the index numbers for this relationship are 46, 113, 186 and 335, respectively. For each successive rise of \$500 in salary there is an approximate doubling of the amount of insurance.

High Salaries and Low Savings

With respect to total savings, the picture is not so satisfactory. The relationship between salary and savings is positive until the \$3,000 to \$3,500 salary level is reached, when there is a sudden break as indicated by the index number of 65. That is to say, the average total savings of women teachers in this highest salary level is only 65 per cent as large as that of women teachers in general. The explanation is found in the fact that large expenditures for housing, food and clothing interfered with a more liberal saving.

Table III presents similar facts concerning expenditures, insurance and total savings of married men classroom teachers. It should be noted, however, that savings and salary levels are positively correlated. The median amounts saved are \$175,

\$242, \$275, \$575, and \$800, respectively. Amounts of insurance, however, show no positive relationship with salary levels. Other significant facts may be gleaned from the table.

Certain questions occur to me as I examine the findings of this study. I wonder, for example, how scientifically sound are the arguments usually advanced for equal pay between men and women. "It is our conviction," declares Dr. J. R. McGaughy, Columbia University, "that the equal pay campaigns that have been successful in many cities and states have been based on sentiment and thoughtless pleas for right and justice rather than on sound and sane consideration of the workings of actual law."

The question is largely answered in terms of supply and demand. It is a well known fact that the business world is bidding more highly for the services of capable young men than for the services of equally capable young women. It is reasonable to believe that men of superior ability will not be inclined to remain in teaching positions when the economic world is bidding strongly for their services. Either the most capable men now engaged in classroom teaching will seek administrative positions in education where salaries are much

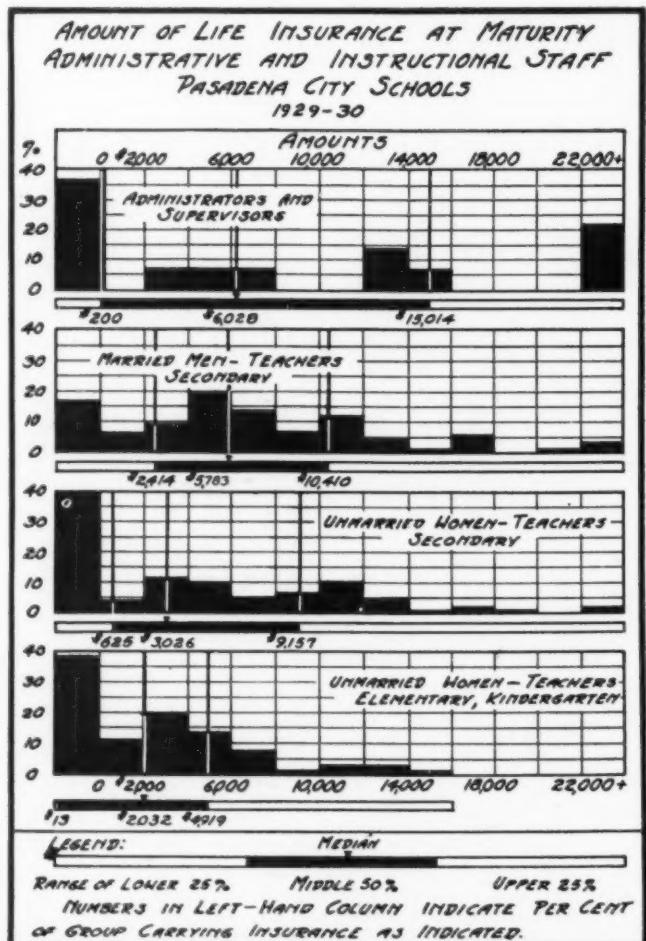


Chart 7.

higher or they will be attracted into more remunerative positions outside the school. In the long run we may hope to have men of as good qualifications as are possessed by women only by paying larger salaries to men than to women in similar positions.

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What Proper Body Mechanics Means to the Pupil

Physical fitness improves with good posture, according to a report just issued by the children's bureau, Department of Labor. The study was made by Dr. Armin Klein, director of the posture clinic, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, and Leah C. Thomas, director, corrective gymnasium, Smith College, and was based on a two-year experiment with 1,700 children in an elementary school in Chelsea, Mass.

Better behavior and better grades as well as fewer absences due to personal illness were found to be the result among the fortunate 961 children who were given training in proper body mechanics, as compared to the group of 747 children who were given only the regular gymnastic exercises.

In view of the fact that in recent years poor body mechanics, or posture, has been considered the cause of so many ailments, the study was undertaken to discover whether the average school teacher, having been taught the rudiments of good posture herself, could train the children properly without unduly upsetting or increasing the curriculum, and whether such training would, even in one year, bring greater evidence of improved health, nutrition, scholarship and morale among the posture trained children than among the "control" group who were not so trained.

The answer to both questions showed that it was quite possible and practicable to provide this expert training for the average school child and that posture training and the maintenance of correct posture contribute to the health and efficiency of normal grade school children.

The posture exercises taught were those formulated by the same authors of "Posture Exercises," a handbook for schools and teachers of physical education, issued by the children's bureau in 1926.

The Business of Running a Modern School Lunchroom

The advantages and disadvantages of centralized administration, the organization of the food department and the systems that are now in use in various schools are discussed in this article

By HOWARD L. BRIGGS, Director of Vocational Education, and CONSTANCE C. HART, Supervisor of Lunchrooms, Board of Education, Cleveland

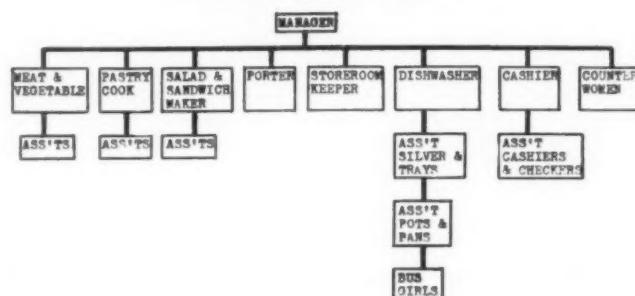
THE era of the little red schoolhouse with its combination superintendent, teacher, janitor, truant officer and nursemaid is rapidly passing into oblivion. The administration of a modern educational system has become a large business enterprise. The expenditures of large city school systems each year are of such magnitude that educational administrators must be thoroughly familiar with modern business procedures. The lunchroom department in its turn has become a business within a business. In many school systems it has become the largest purveyor of unit food services in the community.

The commercially operated chain lunchrooms have proved the economy of mass purchasing and management. It quite naturally follows that the cafeteria systems in public schools should be organized upon a basis through which the collective bargaining power of the group should be utilized to the maximum advantage in purchasing food; in obtaining the services of competent dietitians and

include that most vital element, centralized book-keeping and cost accounting.

A study reveals that practically all large city lunchroom departments now operate through a central agency, although some systems are at pres-

CLEVELAND INDIVIDUAL LUNCHROOM SET-UP



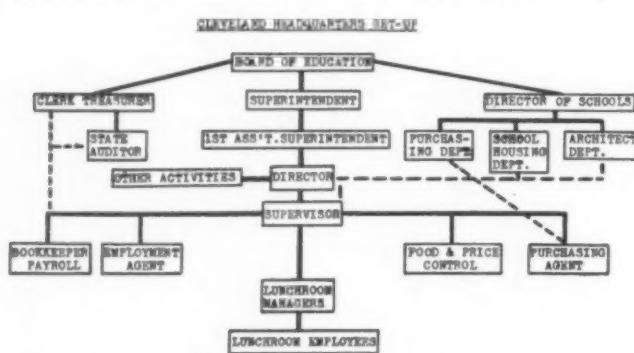
ent in a transitory stage. The goal of centralized administration seems to be universally recognized. The methods of reaching it vary considerably, which is to be expected, because of the lack of standardization throughout the country in the administrative organization of individual school systems.

Some of the advantages of centralized supervision include improved food standards through:

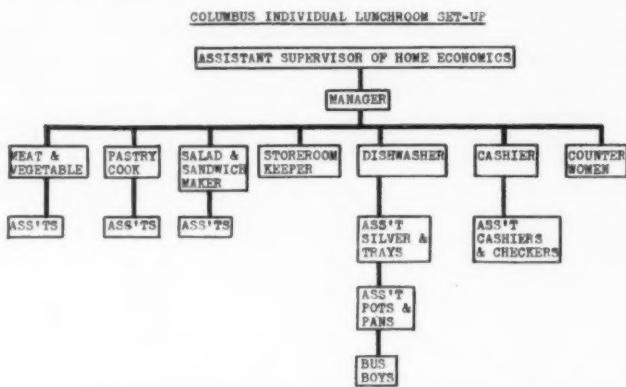
1. The employment of expert dietitians as supervisors and home economics trained lunchroom managers.

2. Provisions for research relative to recipes, food quantities per unit service, dietetic standards for well balanced food combinations and special menus for open air classes, elementary lunches and banquets.

3. Opportunities for the exchange of ideas through group meetings, lectures, visits, notices, miscellaneous bulletins and other activities conducted by the supervisor, each individual lunchroom profiting by the best practices that are found to work out satisfactorily in other lunchrooms of the system and elsewhere.



business managers; in utilizing the advantages of standardized recipes resulting from intelligently directed research; in establishing uniform prices derived from effective supervision; in standardizing equipment in accordance with accurate information concerning needs and time saving elements. Many other economies also are possible through centralized management, which, of course, must



4. The preparation of accurate specifications on food qualities and quantities and of other data essential to efficient purchasing.

Other advantages include economies in administration through:

1. A centralized employment agency with facilities for making contact with the best available lunchroom workers, maintaining service records of current and former employees and meeting emergency help requirements.

2. A bookkeeping and auditing system operated by a centralized group so trained that accurate records of all transactions are maintained, cost and sales data are immediately available and all other information essential to efficient financial control is in readiness.

3. The employment of trained personnel. A few experts may function for the entire system, thus avoiding the duplication of highly paid employees.

4. Group purchasing carried out under a central office; with a purchasing agent trained in calculating food values and possessing sufficient statistical data to determine the actual value received for the money spent.

5. Economy of distribution upon the part of the firms receiving the bids.

6. The operation of a percentage control system based upon the summation of the experiences of all lunchrooms over a considerable period of time.

7. Statistical services supplying data that will indicate the true causes of successes and failures in individual schools.

8. Proper precautions in the deposits and checking of money received through the centralized con-

trol of cash register readings, compared to bank deposit statements.

9. Improved efficiency upon the part of individual managers through competition with the entire group.

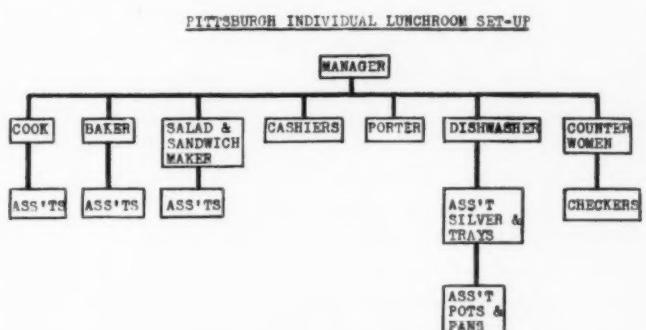
10. Improved operation through carefully considered and installed cafeteria layouts, including both kitchen and service counters, as well as the provision of labor saving devices.

11. The establishment of a standard wage system based upon the actual business of the individual lunchrooms, with an opportunity for promotion through the transfer of employees from smaller to larger units.

12. The opportunity for time study research relative to the reasonable output to be expected from each individual employee.

13. The possibility of enabling smaller units to pay their way, due to the combining of several units under one management.

14. Economy in the use of the time of administrative clerical employees who should be trained



in such a manner that all are kept constantly employed upon the various phases of office work that require emphasis at any one period, such as food reports, monthly reports and special studies.

The Other Side of the Question

On the other hand, centralized supervision has its dangers. These may be listed as follows:

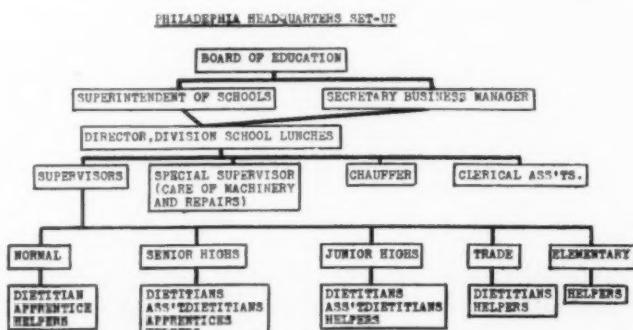
1. Establishing policies which will not work out satisfactorily in the schools of all districts wherein clientele, purchasing power, size of school, nature of equipment and layout may greatly vary.

2. Destroying the initiative of individual managers who lose their identities in a large school system.

3. Failing to maintain proper sympathy with the problems of the many individuals in a large organization.

4. Establishing standards in qualities, quantities, prices and combinations that may not be equally justifiable in all parts of the city.

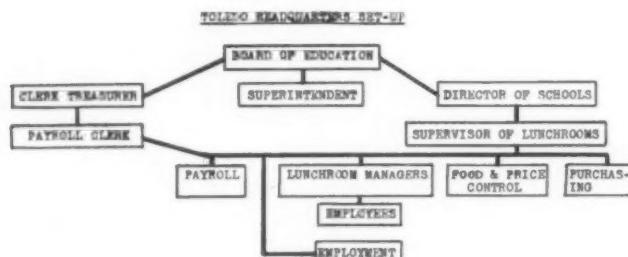
5. Failing to maintain adequate contacts that will ensure proper purchasing and prompt delivery to schools distributed over a large territory.



6. Failing to detect promptly the mistakes of individual schools and to rectify them with sufficient understanding of the situation.

7. Failing to keep individual managers and employees constantly informed relative to all of the pertinent information that will assist in more efficient lunchroom management.

8. Withholding from the individual school man-

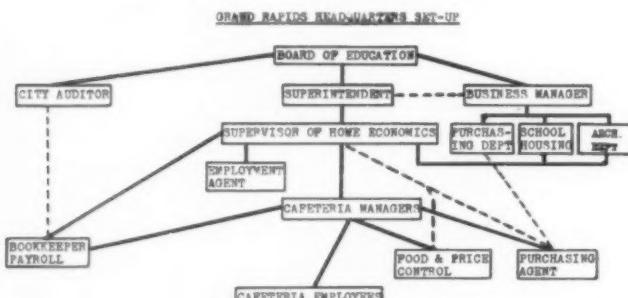


agers sufficient authority to enable them to maintain proper discipline over employees and sufficient flexibility to overcome difficulties peculiar to individual lunchroom situations.

9. Overlooking and condoning individual idiosyncrasies of employees that may interfere with the good will of the educational personnel of the school wherein they are employed.

The problem of the individual school kitchen versus a centralized plant with direct distribution of cooked foods to the individual schools has been considered from a variety of angles by all public school administrators. Boston is probably one of the outstanding examples of a centralized kitchen in which food is prepared and delivered to the individual lunchrooms for sale over the counter. Boston, however, does not attempt to maintain the variety of foods served by most school cafeterias and the menus are decidedly limited. Those who have employed the centralized system are not particularly enthusiastic about it for a number of reasons. These reasons they enumerate as follows:

1. Lunchrooms in large city school systems are



separated by great distances. This involves considerable expense and difficulty in making assured deliveries.

2. Most reheated foods are not as appetizing as freshly prepared foods.

3. Difficulties involved in transferring foods from centralized kitchens to individual counters

necessitate considerable expense in equipment and handling, including the cost of operation and of maintaining a fleet of trucks.

4. Foods prepared in centralized kitchens may not be adapted to the demands of the clientele of individual lunchrooms.

5. There is little opportunity to utilize leftovers satisfactorily, due to the difficulties of and the cost involved in return transportation.

Why Kitchens Should Be Centralized

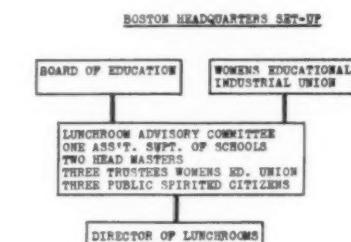
Arguments for centralized kitchens are:

1. Economy in labor, since specialists and adequate equipment can be maintained full time to produce cooked food at a minimum cost.

2. Economy in storing and handling foods, since a centralized commissary can have larger deliveries made to one point for storage and distribution.

3. One centralized purchasing point makes it possible to maintain a more accurate check upon the quality and quantity of deliveries.

The experience of some commercial lunchroom



systems has been that centralized commissaries are more satisfactory for producing baked goods and for meat cutting than for the general preparation of a large variety of cooked foods. It is our belief, after a careful investigation of the centralized kitchen, that it is not the ideal set-up for a large public school system, since its unsatisfactory elements exceed its advantages. It is believed, however, that a school with an adequate kitchen can be utilized frequently to supply foods in the immediate neighborhood.

How Lunchrooms Are Administered

The board of education is, of course, the administrative head of any lunchroom system maintained in the public schools. The next immediate officer in line of authority varies with the communities. In East Orange, New Orleans, Wichita, Newton Center, Grand Rapids, Columbus, Springfield, Birmingham, Baltimore, Los Angeles and Cleveland, the superintendent of public instruction is the next in line. This arrangement places the administration of lunchrooms directly under the supervision of the educational department. In Toledo, the lunchrooms are under the administration of the director of schools, while in St. Louis and Pitts-

burgh, the lunchrooms are under the direction of the superintendent of supplies and the supply commissioner respectively. In Philadelphia, the authority is split between the superintendent of schools and the secretary-business manager. In Boston, the lunchrooms are run jointly by the board of education and the Women's Industrial Union.

The next officer in line in cities in which the educational department administers the lunchrooms, may be the first assistant superintendent, which is the case in Los Angeles, East Orange, New Orleans and Cleveland. Direct lunchroom administration usually comes under a director or supervisor of lunchrooms, or both. The director in many cases may or may not have other duties assigned in addition to lunchroom administration. In the case of Baltimore and Cleveland, lunchrooms come under the director of the division of vocational and practical arts education. In Wichita, they are under the director of secondary education.

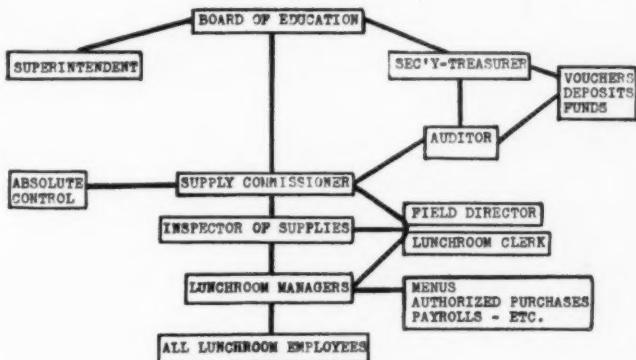
Directing Lunchrooms in Large Cities

In some cases lunchrooms are managed by the supervisor of home economics, who may regard lunchrooms as part of her work, as is the case in Grand Rapids, or there may be a supervisor of lunchrooms fully responsible for their operation, as in Cleveland and other large cities. In some cases, the supervisor of lunchrooms is the assistant to the home economics supervisor. In Detroit, the

with the policies of the individual school systems of which they are a part. Since there is no uniformity in public school administration procedures, we question the advisability of recommending any particular plan, with one exception: The administration and supervision of lunchrooms should come through the educational department, due to the fact that it must function within an organization that is strictly educational and should be educational in its outcomes.

On the other hand, the lunchroom directors and supervisors should be thoroughly trained in busi-

ST. LOUIS HEADQUARTERS SET-UP

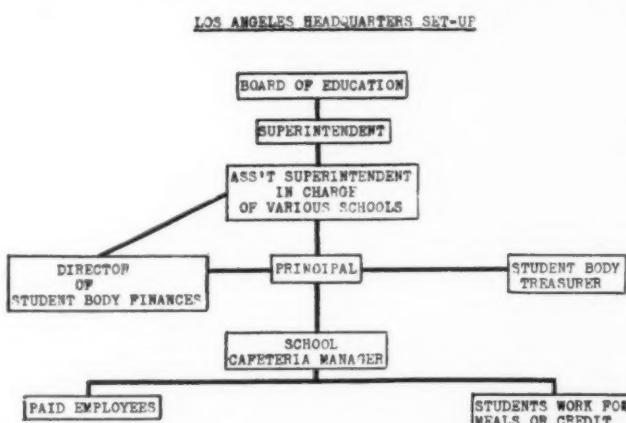


ness procedure. No lunchroom can operate without complete integration and cooperation with the business and financial department of the local board of education. In Cleveland, the accounting and bookkeeping are delegated by the clerk-treasurer to employees of the lunchroom department. The purchasing power is in turn delegated by the purchasing department to a purchasing agent appointed by the lunchroom department. On the other hand, the books of the lunchroom department are audited by the clerk-treasurer and checks are issued by the clerk-treasurer's office for forwarding by the lunchroom department. Purchase requisitions and specifications as issued by the lunchroom department are approved by the purchasing department, and bids are submitted through their office for acceptance and judgments by the lunchroom division. The accompanying diagrams indicate more clearly the variety of set-ups that are found in various lunchroom systems of the country and illustrate the interlocking duties of the various divisions of the boards of education.

Individual Organization

There is less variation in the organization within the individual school cafeterias throughout the country. There is usually a manager who has had either commercial or home economics training. Both are preferable. In many systems managers must be certified as teachers, and therefore possess the minimum educational requirements. In some

director of lunchrooms is at the head of the district dietitians in the intermediate and elementary schools, who supervise individual lunchrooms within their district. In Los Angeles, Denver and Newton, the lunchrooms are practically operated by the independent schools and are directly under the supervision of the principal who directs the activity of the individual cafeteria manager within his own plant. In Los Angeles, the principal works in conjunction with the director of student body finances and the student body treasurer. Lunchroom administrative set-ups must inevitably vary



systems the manager is a part-time home economics teacher. She should have sufficient training in foods to maintain satisfactory standards. There is still in existence in the country the practical woman manager with neither scientific nor business training. If she has exceptional ability she may make the grade through the trial and error method.

The Manager and Her Responsibilities

Since the lunchroom manager must associate with members of the school faculty, it is greatly to her advantage to be on the same educational level with those with whom she must work. Further, professional training in the preparation of food gives her a background which enables her to meet intelligently the many problems involved in public school cafeteria management. In view of

cluded also are the general kitchen help, the porters, the dishwashers, the counter women, the cashiers and checkers and the bus boys or bus girls. The duties of all of these various groups are evident. The smaller the lunchroom, the greater the variety of services required of the individual worker. Some systems utilize considerable student help. This is particularly true when the home economics department operates the lunchroom. It is our belief, however, that the employment of trained personnel on salary eventually results in greater efficiency and increased economy.

Job sheets should be maintained for each job in each individual lunchroom. These sheets should indicate the complete duties of each employee. This information may be utilized by the employment clerk to the maximum advantage in selecting new workers for vacancies, and each new employee in turn is better informed relative to her particular job.

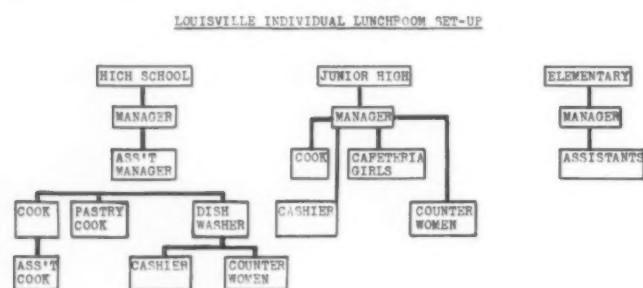
Since later articles in this series will describe the duties of the individual employees, no attempt to go into detail will be made here. It is important, however, that the manager have full authority over the employees working under her, and that the employees know they will be discharged if their services are not satisfactory. The manager should know that the records kept by the supervisory office provide a picture of the operation of the lunchroom so revealing that she cannot afford to maintain workers who do not produce a reasonable output.

What Studies Should Show

Studies should be made by the lunchroom administrators relative to a satisfactory day's work that may be expected from each individual lunchroom employee, and these standards in turn should be utilized in comparing the work of employees in lunchrooms in which there is any question of efficient management. Efficient lunchroom management in any public school system makes it imperative for all employees from the first to the last to have a definite assignment of duties, definite authority relative to those next in line, definite criteria for evaluating their own performance and that of those under them, accurate records of all phases of lunchroom activities and constant contact with the problems of the entire system through active supervision and group meetings.

Efficient supervision and management are absolutely essential to the successful operation of public school lunchrooms. Successful supervision and management without highly efficient personnel are impossible.

The selection and duties of personnel will be treated fully in the next article.



the modern attitude toward educational feeding, lunchroom managers are constantly faced with dietetic problems for both group and individual cases.

Under the supervision of the manager come the various employees essential to the successful operation of a school cafeteria. The service is not identical with that of commercial institutions, because in the majority of cases all of the patrons must be fed within an extremely short period of time, with little morning or afternoon service. This involves the problem of adapting help to a variety of services, and of employing many part-time workers in addition. As a result of this, the majority of employees in school lunchrooms are neighborhood women who seek part-time employment in the schools to supplement family income.

The employment clerk must exert unusual judgment in the selection of these employees. Physical and vocational tests are valuable as a protection to individual managers against trying employees who will waste time before their incompetency is discovered. Checking services on positions previously held and a follow-up record of employee efficiency on the job are essential. Further, a definite scheme of training for new workers should be encouraged by the head of the lunchroom department.

Essential to successful lunchroom management are cooks, which may include meat and vegetable cooks and pastry, salad and sandwich makers. In-

Mapping Out a Small School Activities Program

This department of rural education is conducted by Helen Heffernan, chief, division of rural education, state department of education for California, Sacramento.

By HOMER H. HOWARD, Rogers Clark Ballard Memorial School, Louisville, Ky.

THE Rogers Clark Ballard Memorial School eight miles from Louisville, Ky., draws its pupils from the simple, rural country that lies beyond it and from the estates of the wealthy that surround it. Largely through the interest of the well-to-do parents, but with the consent of the community in general, the county school authorities were interested in attempting a whole-hearted and unhampered experiment in introducing a program of progressive education at the Ballard School. They even had an idea that it might serve as a demonstration school for the entire county school system.

How often have we as teachers said something like this to parents: "Johnnie has real ability. He could do good work if only he were interested in what we are doing." We honestly believed that the responsibility for "being interested" rested with Johnnie. But Johnnie and many of his kind went on not being interested until progressive education came along and showed us that the responsibility is largely ours to capture and hold Johnnie's interest.

In the active life of the progressive school we use the spirit of adventure, the desire to explore, that is part of the make-up of every child. But an adventure into the far-away in either time or place is understood fully only in the light of the here-and-now and takes on meaning only in terms of the child's experience. The child needs the opportunity to use what he already knows, to pass on to what he does not know. The business of teaching is to provide that opportunity and the opportunity lies in the environment of the children.

Believing that the pupils should have a chance to establish themselves in their environment in order to make the most out of it for their individual development, those in charge of the program at the Ballard School planned the subject matter.

The first grade undertook a study of the farm.

To all of these boys and girls, the happenings of farm life are familiar. Many of the children come from farmer families, while those from the families in better circumstances are used to having farming carried on about their estates. The daily coming of the milk wagon to the school to leave milk for the school lunch made a point of contact for visits to a small and then a large model dairy in the vicinity. All the processes of handling milk were studied at first hand. Later on the children made butter in the classroom. The trip experiences were reflected in the block constructions of the children. Some experiments were made with various locally grown cereals. Seeds were planted in a soil table in earth taken from the school grounds and from several of the farms, and the germination was a matter of much interest. Some simple cooking was done with cereals and butter.

Making School a Part of Life

The bench work was concerned with the building of environmental ideas. With a few simple tools the boys and girls converted boxes into barns, houses and farm buildings, made furniture for the houses, constructed wagons, trucks and similar equipment for doing the farm work and for transporting the farm products. These same things appeared again and again in the block constructions. This activity was of use in helping the pupils to orientate themselves in space. It also provided useful experience in individual responsibility for carrying on the work of the classroom world. There were pilers, carriers and stackers for the blocks when they were to be put away or brought out for use. These activities and the sharing of common experiences called forth much talk that easily became a natural beginning of language study.

The second grade concerned itself with the village. Our community has two villages from

which many of the children come, or through which they pass on their way to and from school. To one or the other of them the boys and girls are accustomed to go to barter their farm products for needed supplies and to transact such other outside business as comes occasionally within the family activities. Trips were made to both villages to note the things they had in common as well as the differences. From large, wooden packing cases the children built a store, a bank, a post office, a school and a house, and in this community the familiar life of the village was re-lived on the level of the seven-year-olds. Some of the older boys helped wire the houses for electric lights and installed a door bell.

When the warm weather arrived, the constructions were moved out of doors. A roadway, a bridge, a trolley track and trolley car were added, as well as a farmhouse and a barn at the end of the village street. Flower seed, flowers and shrubs came from home to decorate the village yards. In the fall a new road had been built around the main school building. It was interesting to see how accurately the pupils had remembered the methods used in building the road and how insistent they were upon building their own road correctly. There is a meandering creek in the vicinity which necessitates many bridges. The little villagers were exceedingly particular that the details of their bridge building be carried out in the right manner. For transportation most of the children depend upon an interurban trolley line, hence the trolley

track and car in their village. An airport was added although neither of the pattern villages has one, but Louisville has.

The possibilities for number work are rather conspicuous here, not only in the construction work but in the play periods as well, when the natural activities of village life are freely carried on. This is particularly true of the buying and selling in the store and post office and in the bank, although these are all kept at a play level.

The study of a small community is often the focal point of a second grade program in progressive schools, but Ballard is particularly fortunate in having a genuine village atmosphere upon which to build. Good habits are not hard to establish when the motive is strong enough. A powerful motive lies in the natural activities of these children. The making use of the known, of the environment, is a real stimulus to the child's curiosity in reaching out into the unknown.

For the third grade we planned a re-living of the age of the cave dwellers. In many places in Kentucky there are the remains of a civilization which antedates that of the red men. Private families and local museums have relics believed to belong to that period. Not only are there large caves such as Mammoth Cave and Great Onyx Cave, but the limestone that underlies many portions of the state is the cause of smaller caves. There is a rock cliff which extends for several miles along the Ohio River, and upon which the school is built. This ridge is full of small caves and overhanging rock



The children have utilized their environment in many ways. This scene, designed and executed by the pupils, was copied from a water power mill still in use near the school.



History, geography, dramatic art and sewing were all coordinated when the pupils planned and produced a play based on the days of the early steamboats and railroads in Kentucky.

shelters. In these the children have been used to playing from early childhood. The cave man program in the classroom seems to them like bringing their own out of school play into the classroom.

The life of the cave people is easily understood by the girls and boys because they have had experiences of their own that have enabled them to comprehend it. The teacher helps them to establish meanings that they do not, themselves, necessarily attach to their play activities. An abandoned stone quarry at one corner of the school grounds makes an ideal place close at hand for the activities of the play cave dwellers. Nuts, acorns and grain for food are all plentiful in the vicinity. Shells from the near-by Ohio River served as bodily adornment and for vessels. The tough fiber from the cat-o'-nine-tails reed was woven into mats and baskets. Pottery was made from local clay first, and then from imported clay that would stand being fired. Barter was the primitive man's business medium, and in this are many opportunities for number work.

With the coming of the winter season the little troglodytes made a natural study of the seasons, and carried it easily into a study of fire. An authority on prehistoric man came from Louisville to

talk to the children about that subject. The end of the year carried them into a study of the Blackfeet Indians. Facts, however acquired, mean little if they are isolated. For this reason we base a "far away in time" program like this one not only upon an active re-living of the experiences of the peoples of the past, but also upon a connection with the known, present environment of the child.

The fourth grade planned to deal with early pioneer life in the state, and the program resolved itself into an active re-living of the experiences of the Boone family. Aside from the Kentucky history and geography necessarily involved, the group had the experience of redoing many of the pioneer processes. Some of these still exist in the rural homes of our countryside, virtually unchanged since pioneer days, while others have their modern counterpart in the commercialized activities of neighboring cities.

With the help of the caretaker of an adjoining estate, the children gathered berries, leaves, bark and nuts with which they experimented in dyeing. They made dipped candles. In the school shop they developed crude pioneer furniture, utensils and tools. A visit to the restored stockade at Harrodsburg with its furnished cabins brought the interest

in this phase of activity to a fever heat. There was also a trip to a restored 125-year-old log cabin close to the school. The children were alert in checking up differences in construction between this cabin and those at Harrodsburg.

Sheep raising is largely carried on in the vicinity. A study of wool took the group to visit a sheep farm not far away and ended with a trip to a worsted mill in Louisville to see the finished yarn. A corn study grew naturally out of local farming conditions, and had its stimulation from the active use of corn by the children in their activities connected with the Boone family life. They ground it in Indian as well as in pioneer fashion, and did simple cooking with corn meal. There was a trip to an old water power mill which is still in use near the school. Many of the pupils go there with their fathers to have their own corn ground into meal. The dyeing experiences led to inquiries as to what cloth the pioneers had to dye, and thus came about a flax study which involved planting the seed, the carding of the flax with tools made by the children themselves in the shop, and later even the making of it into thread and the weaving of it into cloth. There was some study of the germination of seeds and the differences in the soils that were required to grow flax and corn. The country child knows about the kind of soil suitable for growing different crops, the climate that is favorable and the kind of cultivation that is needed.

The knowledge and experience of these children so filled them with enthusiasm that they developed a play about the Boones. They designed and painted the scenery and used for stage properties many of the pioneer articles made in the shop. In the early part of the year they had built a lean-to of branches and re-lived the overnight experiences of the Boones on the Wilderness Trail. This evolved itself into one of the scenes of the play. The grandparents of the children were beguiled into telling stories of their own early days as well as stories which they had heard their elders tell. A Louisville artist, who had had associations with the Kentucky mountain folk, recalled for us the type of costume worn by them. Parents lent relics in the nature of family heirlooms, and they were also called upon to help in planning and carrying out the various trips.

Utilizing the Environment

Those of us who have worked in the progressive atmosphere know how replete with subject matter implications this active school life may be. Through the various activities, all types of information become permanent possessions like the flesh and bone of the children's bodies. We do not work, of course, on the basis of a system in which "subjects"

are set off into compartments. The fourth grade program proved to be fraught with many and various learnings.

We carry our pupils through the first year of the high school. The older grades somewhat duplicate the work of the younger ones, but the handling of all the materials is planned with a broader and deeper meaning. The influence of local environment is, however, in evidence here as well as with the younger groups. An interesting experience was the evolution of a Latin play. This had its beginnings in a study of the pastoral side of Roman life in the history classes. In many ways it was surprisingly similar to our own Ballard rural life. The boys and girls in the Latin class decided to make a play in that language out of their findings in the history work. The actual production was a triumph of the combined resources of the school and of the community at large.

How the Pupils Educate Themselves

The fifth grade program shows how a progressive school keeps its program flexible to meet the needs and the demands of a group. It also illustrates again how a "far away in time and place" program may still have its roots in the immediate environment. We live near the Ohio River so that boats are in the life of our children. They see them daily and almost all of the children have had actual physical experiences with them. On the estate of one of the boys is an old landing place from which it used to be necessary to board a boat if one were going on to Louisville, because the road did not continue further. A large number of early settlers came to Kentucky by way of the flatboat down the Ohio River.

We planned for the fifth graders a study of early methods of transportation in this part of the world, and we decided to begin with a survey of modern means of transportation. The new bridge from Louisville to Jeffersonville, Ind., was about ready to be thrown open to traffic. The newspapers were full of its importance as a factor in transportation, and it was a matter of daily talk at the family table. We were also on the verge of the celebration of the completion of the forty-year project of the canalization of the Ohio River from Pittsburgh to Cairo, Ill. This means that boats will find a nine-foot stage of water in the Ohio at all times of the year. Here was another topic that was generally discussed. By beginning with boats and by constantly making use in our activities of what the children already knew about boats, we were able to make their information a vital part of other types of experience. They not only stretched their curiosity to other kinds of boats, but they began to inquire into related transportation facili-

ties—trains, trucks, steamships and aircraft. What followed from this environmental beginning was quite logical. The present day Ohio River boat became a basic interest for a study of history and geography.

When we began to delve back into the river life of the pioneers coming to Kentucky, the children wanted to know where they had lived before they set out on their wanderings. These insistent inquiries led us to a study of the colonies along the Atlantic seaboard. But the children were not satisfied until they found out where these early settlers in our country had come from. Their vital interest settled upon the means of transportation the emigrants from the old world had used in coming to America. Harking back to their Ohio River boats, they developed a good study of ships and their uses in other days. Then they were ready to copy in detail the activities of the various settlements from which their Kentucky ancestors had come. Each of these studies came to a climax with a short, semi-formal dramatization of some outstanding event in the existence of a colony. They were written by the class out of the accumulated knowledge and experience of their own activities.

The final study had for its central theme a moving day in Plymouth when a group of citizens organized a migration to new homes in the better farming lands of Connecticut. This was the first movement of many of its kind which, gradually working west, ultimately brought settlers to Kentucky either across Pennsylvania and down the Ohio or from the south through the Wilderness Trail. Each child found out from what part of the East his ancestors had come, and where in Kentucky they had first settled. They made a map showing the probable travel route of each.

It has been said that a person is trained by another, but that he educates himself. That is what these boys and girls did.

A Rich Preparation for Adulthood

In all of the Ballard programs it is evident that while there is something in common in progress in each group, at the same time there are as many individual activities as there are children in the class. Every child thus has the opportunity to take part fully and personally in the activities of his class group. The children are not dominated by separate subject matters. We try to have them form good habits of first-hand research into the known in their environment, to make use of what they find in discovering concrete relationships. We believe in their having actual physical experience with the life of the world because they are themselves motor creatures. They get and retain what they get through their bodily perceptions. The

more they can draw from their immediate environment, the fuller and the more satisfying will be their excursions into the present and into the past.

Our curriculum is based upon the immediate surroundings, upon what the children know and understand at first hand. The problem is to arrange an active life for the children in the classroom, which shall, at least at first, seem to them like a continuation of their natural everyday activities outside of the classroom. We believe that if we build wisely upon the outside interests of children, before long the classroom interests and the outside interests will become so merged as to form an integral unit of interest.

Newly Patented Process May Prove Boon to Schoolroom

Improvement of acoustics in auditoriums by fastening sound absorbing materials to furniture, a method which departs from the prevailing practice of applying materials of that type to walls and ceilings, is the object of a patent just issued in the Patent Office.

By attaching the material to seating equipment on surfaces facing the floor, where it is out of sight, the prevention of sound vibrations or echoes is effected even when the auditorium is only partially filled, it is stated by the patentee, William E. Foster, Cleveland Heights, Ohio, in specifications filed with the Patent Office.

"Heretofore," Mr. Foster states, "it has been the regular practice to apply sound absorbing material to the walls and ceilings of an auditorium for the purpose of preventing echo."

The patentee claims the ability of the material to absorb sounds reflected from the floor when it is placed on the under side of the seats as an advantage of his invention, stating that "the sound produced by the shuffling of the feet of those occupying the seats will be absorbed in an effective manner."

"In fact," he states, "practical experience has already demonstrated that the sound absorbing material when applied to the under side of the seats may be depended upon as an automatically compensating variable for all conditions of the auditorium, that is, regardless of the degree to which the auditorium may be filled."

Any desired sound absorbing material may be employed and it may be applied to the extent required by the particular set of conditions in a given case, according to the specifications.

When in place, the material is out of sight and protected from damage, it is stated.

Editorials

Training Superintendents in Service

TEACHERS cannot be adequately trained in any training institution. It is useless for normal school or teachers' college presidents or directors of schools of education in universities to claim that when a teacher leaves their hands she is prepared to tackle any teaching position in an expert way. It has been shown almost *ad infinitum* that this is not true. So in every progressive educational system, provision is being made for the continuous professional training of teachers while they are in service.

And now the question is bobbing up everywhere, Should not superintendents receive training while in service? It isn't so easy to provide helpful training for superintendents as it is for teachers while they are actually at work. There is one plan, though, that is being followed successfully by an increasingly larger proportion of superintendents, in the earlier years of their service at any rate. Superintendents' classes in summer sessions have increased greatly during the past decade, both in numbers and in variety. Take up an announcement of the courses in a summer session in one of the larger universities and note the titles of courses for superintendents. Two decades ago, one general course in superintendency was offered in summer schools that were attended by superintendents or principals; to-day one can find as high as twenty different specialized courses.

It is the aim now in summer sessions attended by superintendents to deal in a specialized way with every typical problem that a superintendent encounters in the administration of his schools, to present actual, concrete situations for consideration and not merely to expound general principles of administration. A superintendent could bring to the summer sessions in a number of universities the problems with which he has to deal in his own system, and he could ask to have these problems discussed and they would receive attention. In these courses superintendents from different communities are enrolled and they pool their experiences under the guidance of the instructor. In this way a superintendent can strike directly at the particular problems that cause him trouble. This is the type of training and service that will prove valuable to a superintendent, and opportunities for such training are being offered now so extensively that it ought not to be difficult for any

superintendent who feels the need of refreshment from time to time to obtain the kind of help he needs.

Time was when school boards took it for granted that a teacher or a superintendent had fully completed his training before he entered upon his professional career. Those days are passing rapidly. The popularity of adult education is making it easier and entirely respectable for a superintendent to ask to be relieved of his duties for six or eight weeks during the summer that he may make progress in his professional growth. It is no longer necessary for a superintendent, or a teacher either, to make apologies when he spends some weeks in professional study. Not so long ago a superintendent or a teacher was afraid he would lose in prestige in his community if he let it be known that he thought there were things he could learn about his work by further study or by communion with persons engaged in work similar to his own.

There is a much more wholesome attitude now than there was two or three decades ago in respect to the possibility and desirability of continued growth after one begins his service. Instead of having to apologize now for wishing to continue his studies, a superintendent or a teacher in progressive communities would have to apologize if he did not show some interest or eagerness in promoting his professional growth. In an increasing proportion of communities there is no longer any dead line beyond which a superintendent or a teacher cannot go in professional study and enrichment.

—N.S.—

The Social Policy of the American Federation of Teachers

AT ITS fifteenth annual convention the American Federation of Teachers adopted minimum standards of its social policy.

These standards provide that boards of education shall exercise no control over the out-of-school activities of teachers, to the end that teachers may be free to conduct themselves as they think proper outside of the classroom. This provision guarantees to teachers political as well as social freedom from criticism or restriction by boards of education. A further standard in the social policy of the federation provides that teachers shall use all the resources at their command to obtain a high level of wages, permanence of tenure and pension allowances for disability and old age.

It was declared as a further standard of the federation that teachers should study the social forces operating in the world about them so that they can maintain a position of leadership in their commu-

nities, and also so that they can interpret the life of society properly to their pupils. It was declared further that teachers should unite in professional organizations without subservience to any other organizations or to vested interests.

These standards for the guidance of teachers in their social relations and activities will probably be approved by thoughtful educators and also by unprejudiced laymen. There is no item in the declarations of the federation that ought to be deleted. There are omissions, however, that the federation in its further deliberations ought to include in its standards of social policy. It ought to exhort teachers to attain such excellence in professional and social activities that they will readily command the respect and confidence of the citizens in the community in which they labor. The standards of social policies in other professions place more emphasis upon ethical and professional attainments by the members of these professions than they do upon the rights of members. In law, medicine, engineering and similar professions, members are advised to strive for superior attainments to the end that they may impress society with the service they are capable of rendering.

In the teaching profession, however, there has been a tendency to build up defenses against the indifference or neglect of and exploitation by society. When teachers form organizations they are inclined to lament the treatment of members of the profession and also to utilize professional organizations to obtain high salaries, pensions and permanence of tenure. The impression often created is that teachers are seeking for personal benefit and advancement more than they are seeking for professional growth.

It would be well if, in declaring social policies, organizations of teachers would first of all set forth the personal, intellectual and professional attainments a teacher should possess in order to render service of a high quality to the communities that employ them. An effort should be made to establish standards of intellectual, personal and professional qualifications that every teacher should reach in order to be regarded as an acceptable member of the teaching profession. If such standards could be made definite enough to incorporate them as necessary requirements for admission to organizations of teachers, such a move would be of genuine value in elevating the teaching profession in the eyes of the members of other professions and of boards of education and laymen. It is probable that the guarantees that teachers would like to obtain from boards of education and from communities they serve would be granted automatically if they could convince the public that they are as necessary for the welfare of society as

are physicians, lawyers, bankers, sanitary engineers, legislators or governors.

We are not here minimizing the need of educating the public so that teachers will receive treatment according to their merits and their needs. Considering the present status of the teaching profession, it is necessary for organizations of teachers to keep before boards of education and laymen generally the fact that teachers' salaries are not commensurate with the salaries of other professions, that teachers are subject to the whims of members of boards of education and that they often approach the inevitable hour without protection from hunger and cold.

It should be regarded, however, as of greater importance for teacher organizations to elevate the status of members of the profession than to develop defensive attitudes toward society among the members of the profession. As improvement is made in the former, it will be unnecessary to be apprehensive concerning the latter.

Should School Playgrounds Be Scrapped?

MUST playgrounds for school children be scrapped?

From every section of the country come rumors that, in the widespread movement for educational retrenchment, playgrounds under the supervision of some authorities are being abandoned. The logic of the situation seems to be clear and adequate for those who think that our schools have become too expensive anyway. There is insistent demand that boards of education curtail their activities so that their budgets may be reduced, and what can be spared better than playground activities? In a time when many persons find it difficult to obtain food, clothing and shelter, there is no justification for expending money for play. From one standpoint this view seems to be reasonable.

From other points of view, playgrounds supervised by boards of education ought not to be sacrificed, even if it is necessary to practice the strictest economy in the administration of the schools. There is almost universal agreement among those who are responsible for the conduct of the young in urban life that adequate and properly equipped playgrounds play the biggest part in preventing juvenile criminality. We have obtained at first hand incontrovertible evidence to the effect that when playgrounds are closed or are left without any direction or supervision, misdemeanors among the young increase markedly. Some administra-

tors of juvenile courts have said in effect that the cost of juvenile crime in a community in which playground facilities are inadequate is more expensive in the long run than the maintenance of playgrounds under the direction of trained play supervisors.

We ought to regard playgrounds as a part of school equipment and not as a superfluous appendage suitable only for recreation. In a period of economic storm and stress, the public will inevitably and perhaps properly seek to eliminate expenditures for luxuries, and play appears upon superficial examination not to be one of the necessities of life. As a matter of fact, play for the young up into the teens is one of the necessities of life, and if provision is not made for it the chances are—we have abundant evidence of the truth of this—that the impulses and urges that can be gratified through play will work out into misbehavior. Even from the standpoint of community economy, it is a wrong policy to eliminate playgrounds in a program of educational retrenchment.

Academic Freedom for High School Teachers

LAST spring a high school teacher in a large city lost his position. The board of education, in failing to reappoint him, gave as a reason that he was not meeting the requirements of his position fully. He claimed that this was camouflage. The real reason, in his opinion, was that he had taken an active part in the spring election in the district in which he lived. One of the members of the board of education was a candidate for a city office. The teacher in question campaigned against him. He charged that the candidate was personally and politically unfit for an office in the city. The candidate won in the election and the teacher lost his position in the high school.

There has been considerable discussion of this case in academic circles. There has been reference to it in addresses made at several conventions. Newspapers have commented upon the question of academic freedom involved in this teacher's dismissal. The general trend of opinion expressed by academic men in their public utterances is that the teacher had a right as a citizen to play any rôle he chose in the city election in his district and that it was no concern of the members of the board of education what the teacher's politics were and what methods he adopted in endeavoring to accomplish the defeat of the candidate who, he said, was unfit for the office he was seeking.

The superintendent in this city was asked to say

frankly whether the teacher was dismissed because of his political activities, or for the reason given by the board of education in refusing to continue his employment. The superintendent replied that the teacher was not judicious in his utterances, in school or outside. He seemed to feel that he was appointed to criticize almost everything that was done by the board of education or by the city officials. He was a good teacher and his character was above reproach, but he was conspicuously hostile to the existing régime in the education and the government of the city.

The *NATION'S SCHOOLS* has always stood for academic freedom and always will, but at the same time it recognizes that a teacher ought to have good sense and not blatantly criticize those in authority over him. Anyone capable of teaching in a high school should understand human nature to the extent of realizing that when a person is attacked, that person will endeavor to defend himself. When the personnel of a board of education are condemned, the board is going to react against the one who utters the condemnation, particularly if he keeps at it and attracts widespread attention because of his charges of personal and political incompetency. This is apparently what the teacher under consideration did in respect to at least one member of the board of education under which he held his position.

A recent speech on this case charges that teachers are becoming less and less free to express their social, political, economic and religious views. It asserts that selfish organizations in America are seeking to throttle all those who teach the young so that vested interests may spread propaganda in their own favor. This statement is to be doubted. Teachers have been practically set free from arbitrary restraint in respect to their behavior outside of their classrooms and in respect also to freedom in commenting upon current political, economic, social and educational policies. Teachers are much freer to-day than they were formerly to live as they choose and express themselves on any topics of current interest, provided, of course, that they do not flagrantly violate social or moral codes, and provided also that they have good taste in not making themselves objectionable and not vehemently attacking those in authority.

There may be occasions when teachers are actually throttled, as one speaker maintained recently, but these occasions are certainly becoming rarer every year. Any teacher who has matured convictions on any important matter may express himself without the danger of professional decapitation, if he does not make himself offensive and if he does not use his position as a teacher to give force and effect to his iconoclastic views.

Happy to Say—By WILLIAM McANDREW

THIS is the best year education ever had in your time. There is more need of it than you ever knew before. Intelligence, application, hope and confidence, everybody says, are wanted. Education has always claimed to be the mother of these qualities.

MORE boys and girls, men and women, are coming to school. There is no occupation for them elsewhere. They have expectation of benefit from contact with your schools. Some hopes are high; some are diluted with doubt. For, the testers and researchers have dissipated many ancient faiths. They have nearly destroyed the doctrine that getting creditably through Latin promises success in anything else.

PROFESSOR SNEDDEN finds that algebra, Latin, ancient history, physics, English composition, typewriting and most of the junior and senior high school studies have no bearing whatever on citizenship.

THE BROOKLYN EAGLE prints a list of seventy-four respectables, most of them known to you, who lay the present tragic evils to failures of schools. There are many others. Governor Sullivan, in 1787, and Commissioner Cooper, in 1931, urged the school to make economics, government, politics, their chief subjects of instruction.

BE THANKFUL that a great jolt is coming to you. Calamity made farmer Washington a nation's savior. A crisis developed Lincoln. It took a war to arouse Grant to his capacities. A supreme risk awakened the heroism of schoolmaster Nathan Hale.

MANY a man dates the realization of his powers from a sick bed, a disaster, or a great blow.

NOW is education's opportunity. It is your luck. Never have you had more reason to set your schools right. This is the time to scrap their inherited pre-Revolutionary absurdities. Latin, algebra and high school culture courses haven't given us citizens alert to public welfare and pure politics. Discussions of the nation's ills and of the cures proposed by respectable men should give as useful mental training as fussing with x and y , and they need as much time.

THE university does not pay the cost of high school. A community in sore need of citizens equipped to tackle problems of vital concern does pay for it. The need of the country, not the wish of college entrance boards, is what must settle what you teach. You have reached agreement that citizenship is the prime purpose of public schools.

YOUR next step is making the public schools make citizenship their prime purpose. The problem is not to give citizenship what time is left after Latin, algebra, language, literature and all the high school studies have hogged the day. The job is to give chief attention to faults and virtues, successes and failures of democracy, and to use the other studies as supplements or refreshment.

THE makers of our public schools proposed you as leaders in democracy. You are not. The only line you lead is a troop of teachers. The only thing you lead them to is better teaching of inferior subjects unrelated to the main purpose. You now realize that. Your own people have told it to you many times.

IN YOUR conventions you are "resoluting" that public education must be civic, political. This is a grand time to do at home what you vote for in conventions. It is a high adventure not without danger.

AMERICANS love a leader, consistent and can-do, who can stand against influence and misrepresentation, who sees the nation's need and will lead his soldiers to the rescue.

YOU are a commander in this campaign. The troops won't move at their own instance. You can't wait for someone to tell you what to do. Nobody considers your school board an educational leader. You've got to be a self-starter.

I'M TELLING you that it's a big job. That's the reason you are to be congratulated.

AND let me whisper that the risks are not nearly so great as is generally supposed. But what if they are? There's no good reason you should be a coward because you are a schoolmaster. In these fifty years I never have learned of an educational executive of industry and courage who got the worst of it or whose wife or children starved. Hooray for the present! Hooray for you!

Practical School Administration: How Graphs Clarify Statistics for the Layman

By PHILIP C. LOVEJOY, Chicago

AT A RECENT meeting of an alumnus chapter of an educational fraternity, the talk developed around the topic of graphical presentation. Said the superintendent across the table: "How can I present graphically a comparison between the increase in enrollment in my system and the increase in income?" Several suggestions were offered, such as reducing the data to a common base, equivalent to translating the material to a series of indexes—correcting for extreme variables, and so forth. That conversation, which indicated the widespread interest in such a topic, was the inspiration of this article.

On returning to my office I began a search for similar data. Copies of various school publications including a number of annual reports provided the following statistical information concerning Town X.

Year	November Membership	Annual Income
1922-23	7,657	\$1,213,046.26
1923-24	8,303	1,335,104.62
1924-25	9,364	1,426,913.05
1925-26	10,361	1,163,896.39
1926-27	10,554	1,403,757.13
1927-28	10,545	1,430,699.09
1928-29	11,420	1,512,627.23
1929-30	11,614	1,481,311.44
1930-31	11,957	1,412,345.69

The foregoing annual income figures are somewhat corrected in order to be comparable. For instance, it is not possible to take the total receipts from an annual report because there is included the cash balance carried forward from the previous year. Then again, frequently, there are bonds issued for building purposes. This amount together with premiums must be subtracted if a true comparison is to be made. If the comparison is to be absolutely accurate, delinquent taxes should be corrected back to the year for which they were due unless it is desired to show how they may cause fluctuation in the receipts. In this case no correction for delinquent taxes has been made because it is desired to show that income

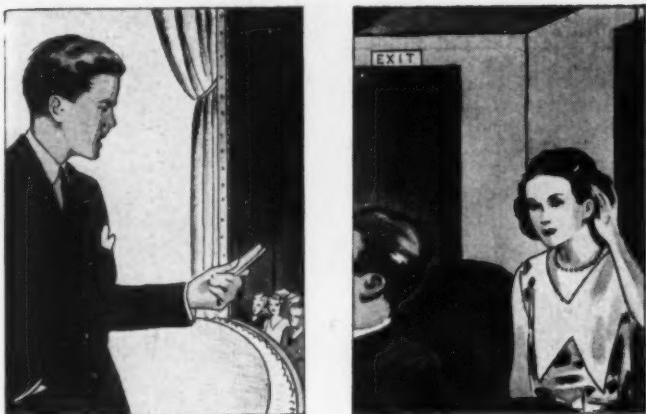
may vary because of community economic and social factors.

Since these data are manifestly of two kinds, one a table of population and the other a table of dollars, no true comparison can be made on the same cross section background until they are translated to a common base. That common base in this case is an index figure—the relation of each succeeding year to the first year mentioned. In other words what percentage of the amount of the beginning year are the figures for any succeeding year? With 1922-23 as an initial point this percentage was determined and the decimal point omitted so as to provide an index of reference. The figures then become:

Year	Index of Increase in November Enrollment	Index of Increase in Annual Income
1922-23	100	100
1923-24	110	110
1924-25	122	117
1925-26	137	96
1926-27	138	115
1927-28	138	117
1928-29	149	124
1929-30	151	122
1930-31	156	116

Since these figures are based on a common denominator they can be charted to the same scale from a common point of origin. The process is relatively simple.

Let us assume that we have no square ruled paper. Indeed for such special problems it is far better that we do not have. We must draw our own background and then plot the indexes on it. We take a piece of cardboard, letter size (8½ by 11 inches). With a square we draw a line up the left side and one across the lower side of the paper intersecting at the lower left side. These are the lines of reference. A careful examination of the foregoing figures will show that the index of November membership varies from 100 to 156, a variance of 56 points. The variance in the index of income is from 96 to 124, or 28 points. In order not to have the graph too large, we assume that



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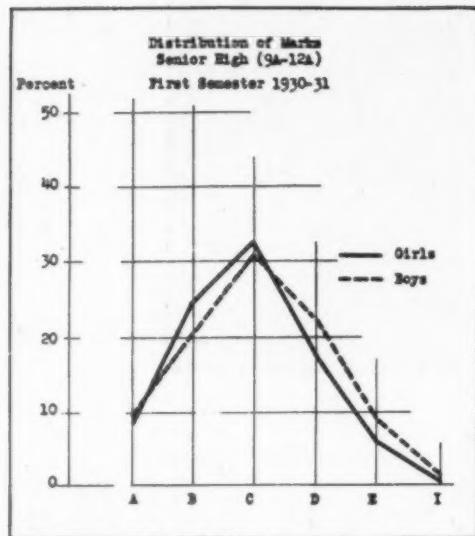
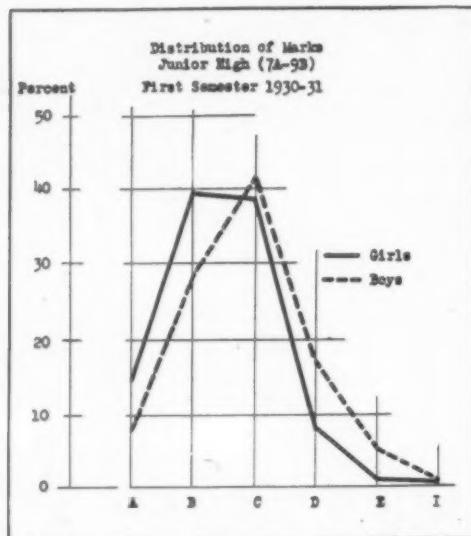
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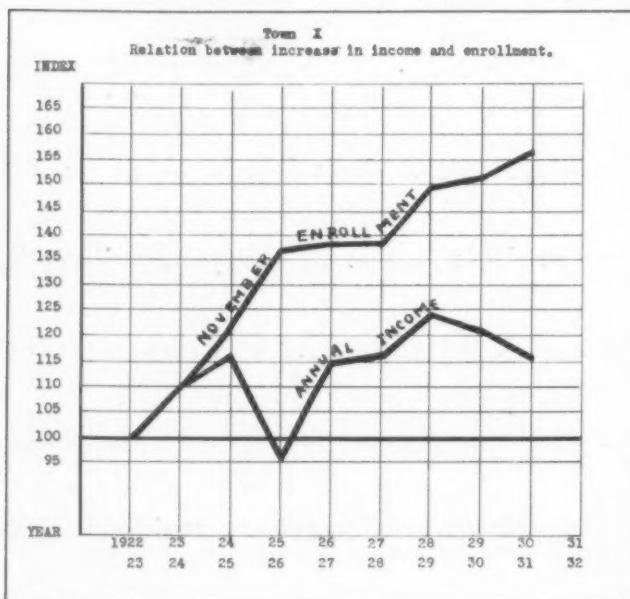
The two diagrams illustrated here are easy to interpret and pleasing in appearance. The background lines have been faintly traced so as not to interfere with the intensity of the graph line, which in itself presents the real picture.

every five points may be represented by a quarter inch. This means that the spread of the diagram from top to bottom will be about 3 inches. We next note that there are nine years to be included. To make a pleasingly rectangular diagram, the years can be placed half an inch apart, which means that the graph when completed will be 4½ inches wide.

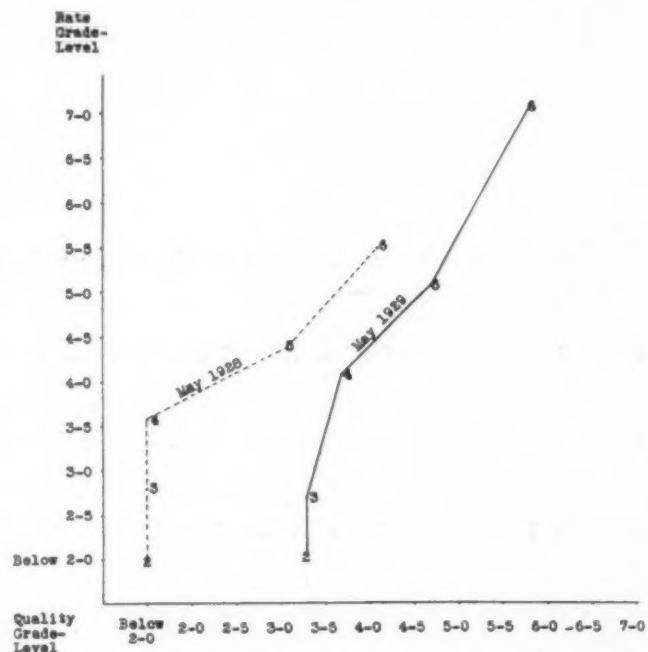
Shall the indexes be plotted up and down or from left to right? Since we are trying to indicate fluctuations, such as the rise and fall of the indexes, it is but natural that they run up and down. The scale of years, therefore, begins

at the left side of the paper and runs to the right, following the normal line of sight. Our diagram is therefore 3 inches high and 4½ inches wide plus margins all around.

With a square the background lines are drawn



With the year, 1922, as a starting point, the rate of increase in enrollment has been contrasted with the rate of increase in income. For 1923, each had increased 10 per cent, or were 110 per cent of what they were in 1922. The lines then separate. The top line represents the enrollment increase while the bottom line shows the rate of increase in income. During 1930, the enrollment was 156 per cent and the income but 116 per cent of what they were in 1922.



This graph, illustrating the improvement in both the rate and quality of handwriting, will be difficult for the layman to interpret, for no statement of interpretation is attached and cross lines of reference are omitted.

horizontally at intervals of a quarter of an inch while the vertical lines are drawn at intervals of half an inch. These lines are drawn in pencil and later inked lightly. The lines of reference are made a little heavier. It is important that these background lines be lightly drawn for they are not the important part of the picture. They are for guidance only.

For the rate of change in enrollment, it is necessary to plot the index points by years. When this

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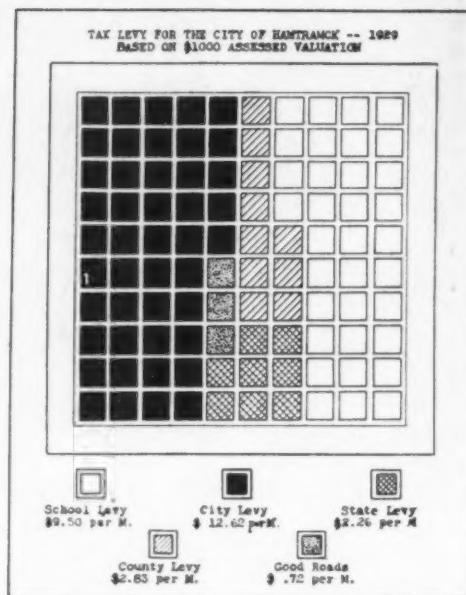
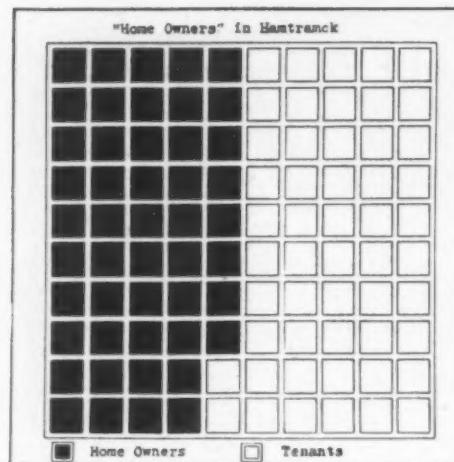


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These diagrams, captioned respectively "Home Owners" and "Tax Levy," offer an interesting variation of the graphic style. The optical effect is pleasing and the key under the right diagram makes interpretation easy.



is done, a broken line is drawn through them. The same process is followed for the indexes of income increase. Usually when two different items are shown on the same background, two different types of lines are used, but in this case, since the lines are fairly well apart except for the first annual interval, both can be solid lines. These should be inked heavily, even more so than the base lines of reference, for these two broken lines constitute the picture. At the outer margins a rectangle should be drawn to serve as a frame. With the typewriter the title should be placed at the top of the graph within this frame line, while the intervals of index should be placed beside the proper lines on the left side and the annual intervals below the correct lines across the bottom. Each line in the graph itself should be labeled so that there may be no mistake as to which represents income and which represents enrollment.

If this picture has been drawn for the general public, a brief statement of interpretation should be printed below the graph. This will permit anyone to read the statistics pictured. A further help is to print the tables of original data proximate to the diagram so that reference may easily be made from one to the other. In this case, the table of indexes should be included as well as the original data.

Salient Features

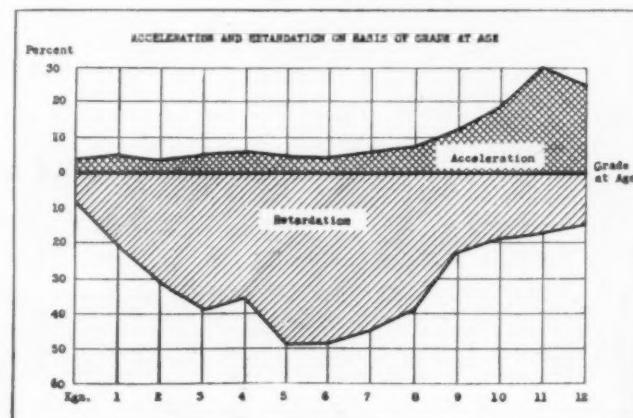
Now that the making of graphs has been discussed in detail, it may not be amiss to consider briefly a few salient features of the graphic presentation of school data for the information of laymen.

The background lines should be faint so as not to interfere with the intensity of the graph line itself. The graph line is the real picture. The faint lines must be drawn from the lines of reference so that the graph may be easy to read. Illustrations of what is meant are presented in the accompanying cuts. It is difficult to ascertain

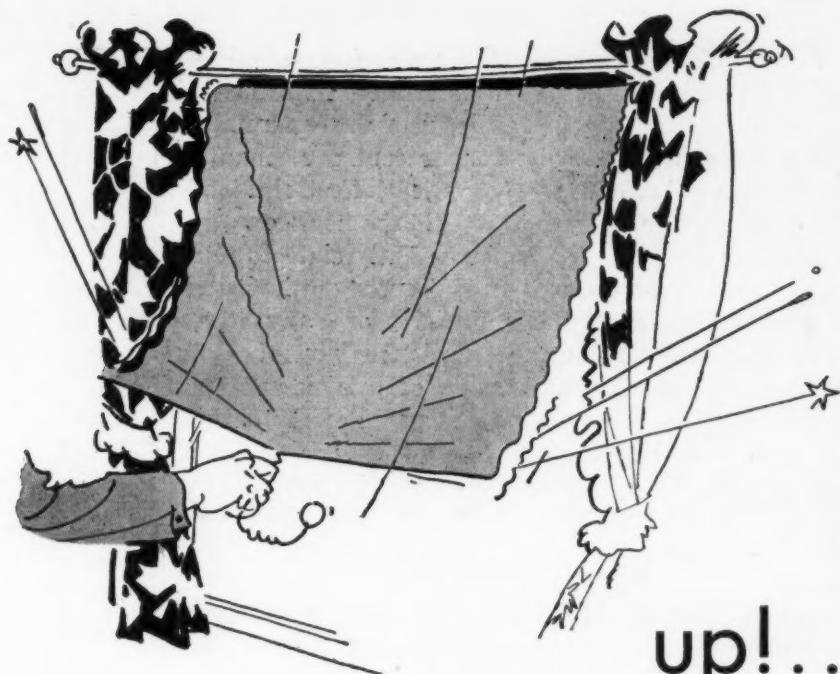
the percentage of any letter grade unless a straight edge is used. In the two diagrams, "Distribution of Senior High Marks" and "Distribution of Junior High Marks," the interpretation is easy and the graph line itself is pleasing in appearance.

The unit variables should be easily understood by the reader. The illustration subtitled, "Improvement in Rate and Quality of Handwriting," is an example in point. The average layman will experience considerable difficulty in understanding it. No statement of interpretation is attached. Cross lines of reference are omitted.

It would seem advisable to present but one type of fact in one diagram, even if it is a little more expensive to produce several additional graphs. Why not vary the style of presentation? Graphs need not all be of the broken line type. Let us consider that we have the component percentages of subactivities within a certain field. It is desired to indicate the whole and the relation of the parts to the whole. A diagram such as that cap-



Another method of presentation is illustrated by this graph, which clearly shows the relation between the two variables.



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down....down
and
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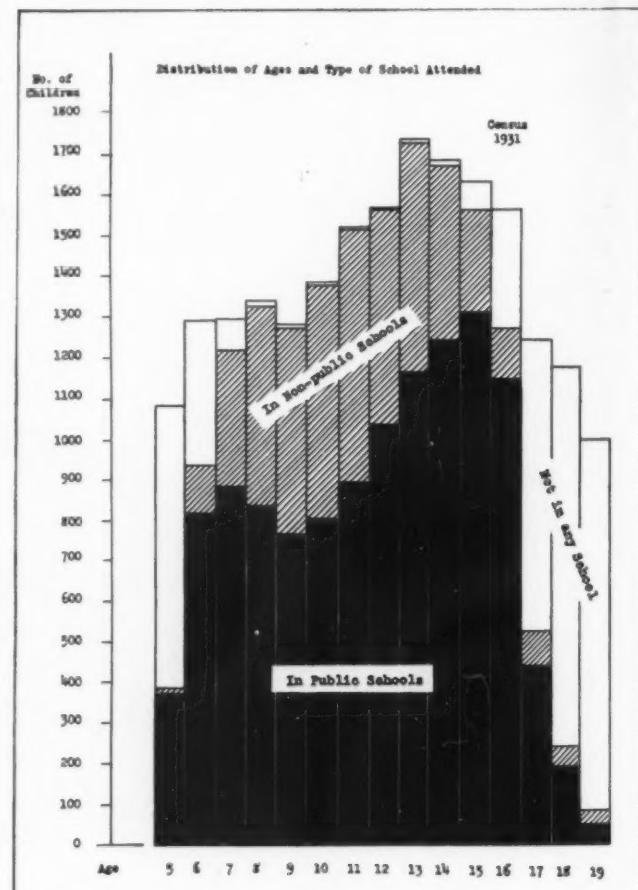
tioned "Home Owners" offers a pleasing variation. Since there are 100 squares, it is seen immediately that 48 per cent of the residents of the community are home owners while 52 per cent are tenants. Another point here is the optical effect obtained by making the squares that relate to home owners black instead of those squares that relate to tenants. Since more attention is focused on the black squares, this gives the impression of many home owners. In the diagram captioned "Tax Levy," there is a slight modification of this percentage presentation. Five component parts of the entire tax are indicated on a percentage basis. Here again the use of black brings out the contrast of the city tax with the school tax.

Other Methods of Presentation

The diagram of acceleration and retardation indicates still another method of presentation. The relation between the two variables is seen at a glance and the rates are also easily ascertainable.

A variation of the percentage diagram is the so called "Pie" presentation as illustrated in the diagram, "Citizenship Status of Evening School Students." The relation between parts is indicated, but in general it is more difficult to see this at a glance. Probably the hundred square method is clearer.

Recently a telephone company presented statistics on telephone load by printing the graph and lines of reference over a half tone of a central switchboard in operation. This half tone was printed in a tint while the graph itself was in

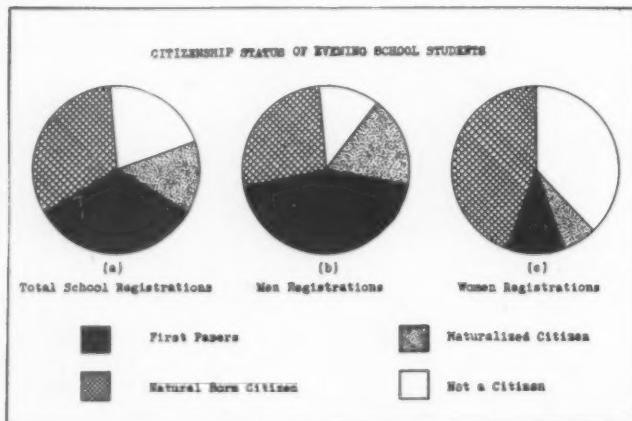


Still another type of graph is illustrated here.

In The NATION'S SCHOOLS for September, 1929, there was presented an analysis of annual school reports from several school systems of varying sizes. It was shown that the average report contained but four graphs. One report included nine while one had none. Tables of statistics are bore-some because they are difficult to read, but if they are supplemented with carefully made graphs, the general public is able to catch at a glance the trend of the activity that is presented. Hardly a day passes but that some newspaper presents important information by this means.

What Graphs Should Show

Graphs enable school men to interpret their school problems to the laymen. These should be clear, with the background faint and the graph line distinct. The item on which attention is to be focused should be emphasized. Variety should be used. The supporting data should be printed near by and an interpretive statement should appear under the cut line. It should be remembered that the American public is busy, that it has a great deal to read in a short space of time and that energy and time must be conserved. Graphs, therefore, constitute a field worthy of exploration and development.



This "Pie" presentation shows the relation between the parts, though in general it is difficult to see this at a glance.

yellow. The graph was not as easy to read as it would have been had the background been plain white. The advantage, however, was that the relationship was immediately set forth. The statistics indicated a use. Probably schools cannot do much of this type of work because of the two-color run, but the method lends itself to variety.

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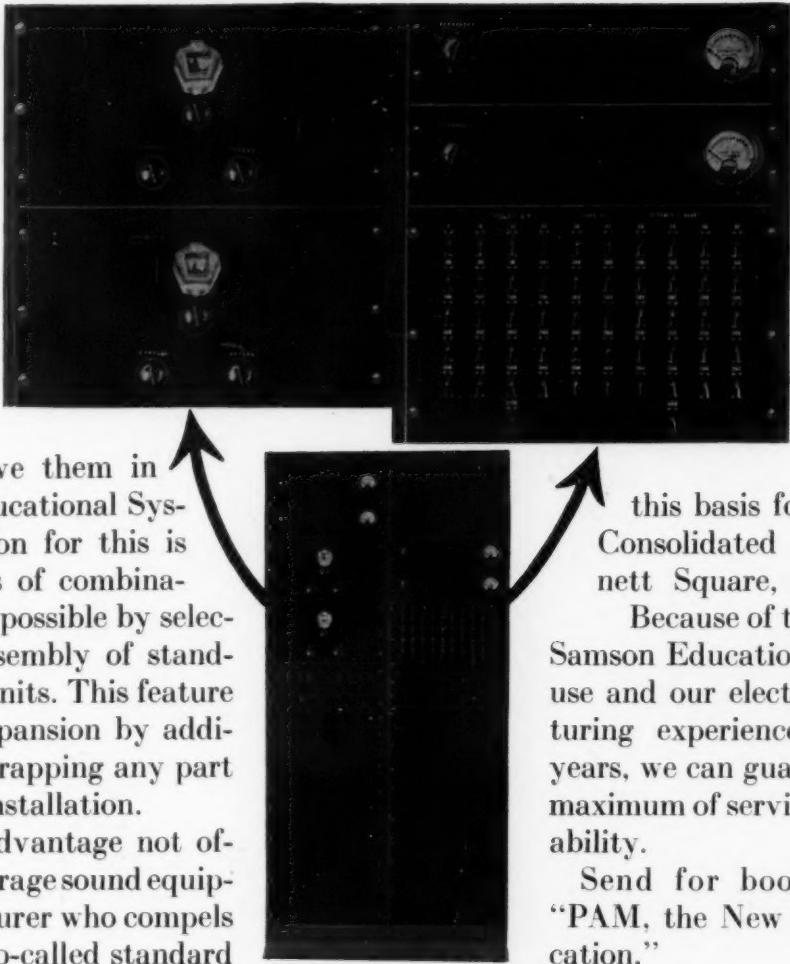
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The Report Card—Its Rôle in School Administration

By JOHN GUY FOWLKES, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin

PARENTS, pupils and teachers alike throughout the country have come to look forward to the issuance of report cards. Parents are eager to see if their children are "getting along all right in school." Pupils likewise wish to know how they are "coming out." And teachers both consciously and unconsciously use the report card as a basis of departure for periodic stock taking of both themselves and the pupils. Obviously, the report card plays a major rôle in the administration of our schools since it is used as one of the major criteria in settling problems for the entrance, classification and promotion of pupils.

Since it is tacitly assumed by all concerned that the report card does have an important rôle to fill in our present day schools, the type and use of the report card should receive careful attention from all concerned. The following are some of the questions involved in issuing report cards.

Questions of Major Importance

Should report cards show only marks of achievement in academic subjects? Should report cards show only marks of achievement in academic subjects and in extra-curricular activities? Should report cards show only character or social behavior marks? Should report cards carry both achievement marks in academic subjects and extra-curricular activities and also character or social trait or behavior marks? If marks for academic subjects are shown, should the marks for all subjects be shown, should the marks for all subjects be carried on a single card or should a card be issued for each subject? After the type of card with respect to basic data has been chosen, what other information should a report card carry? How should report cards be sent to parents? At what periods should report cards be issued? What is the best procedure with respect to the clerical labor involved in issuing report cards? Where should report cards be kept during a current school year? What are the optimum standards with respect to size, color and mechanical make-up of the report

card? What is the best policy with respect to an interpretation of the marking system for parents?¹ Should the policies with respect to report cards vary between the elementary and secondary schools?

Essential Data

The following discussion consists of a report of present practice with respect to the questions raised, with certain recommendations concerning optimum practice. These questions fall into the following major divisions: (1) essential data for report cards; (2) number of cards; (3) mechanical standards; (4) method of transmittal; (5) frequency of issuance; (6) the administration of the report card.

The discussion is based primarily on a recent study of child accounting practices in Wisconsin, along with the studies by Moehlman and Heck.

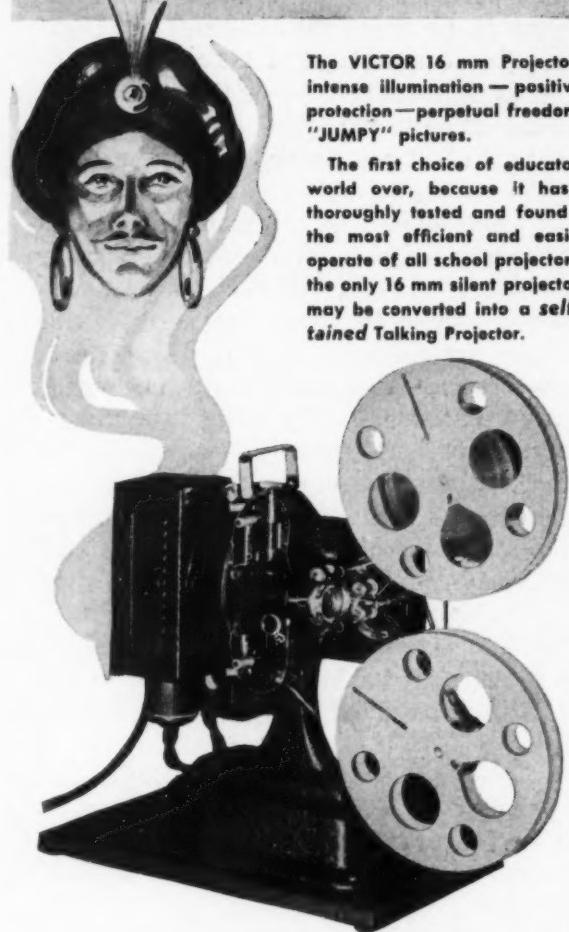
It seems that for the kindergarten and for the first and second grades, the practice is about equally divided between a policy of giving formal subject marks along with behavior marks and giving only general behavior marks. For the rest of the grades it is well nigh a universal practice to give marks representing achievement in the various academic subjects. Up to the junior high school some kind of behavior marks are given, these marks going under a variety of names such as the old term deportment, behavior, character, school citizenship and so forth. While these behavior marks are found on the report cards issued in the junior and senior high schools also, the practice in this respect is not nearly so universal as in the elementary schools. A few schools issue a subject mark report card and also a character or behavior card. A few superintendents and principals have used a letter to parents instead of the usual card. Adequate reports on this practice are lacking.

One of the most interesting experiments in report cards is being carried on in the Lyndale School, Minneapolis, and the Lapham School,

*Discussions in this department deal with problems that frequently confront principals and superintendents. Inquiries on problems of this nature should be addressed to Doctor Fowlkes.

¹This point is not taken up in this discussion since it was discussed in previous columns, appearing in the May, 1928, January, 1929, and September, 1929, issues of The NATION'S SCHOOLS.

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Madison, Wis.¹ In these schools, only character marks are carried. It is too early to predict the ultimate value of these experiments, but they surely should be watched with a great deal of interest by all professional educators. Another interesting deviation from the usual report card practice is the graphic report card recommended by Wegner.²

It seems to me that at present marks should be shown for achievement in the various subjects, in extra-curricular activities and in the social behavior of pupils. In schools that have one mark required for passing and another for recommendation to college, the report should carry both of such marks together with a careful explanation of them.

Other Practices Now in Effect

In addition to the marks, there should be, of course, spaces for the pupil's name, the address, the school, the city, the state, preferably the name of the home room teacher, an explanation of the marking system used in the school and the signature of the parent or guardian. In some schools where the report card is also utilized as a certificate of promotion, necessary data should be carried.

The general practice with respect to the number of report cards issued is to issue a single card carrying marks on all matters the school wishes to report to the parent. Quite a large number of junior and senior high schools, however, issue a card for each subject, placing the responsibility of posting marks on the individual subject teacher. Single subject or activity cards and a social behavior card seem to me to be decidedly the better policy for all grades above the sixth. Some principals and superintendents prefer them throughout the school.

As is true of all record forms, the report card should be of standard filing size. It should also be large enough for convenient handling, 4 by 6 inches being a good size. The color of the stock should be selected on the basis of ease of identification and frequency of use. The weight of the card stock should be based upon the frequency of handling and the filing space available.

The two obvious ways of transmitting report cards to the parents are by mail or by the pupils. In practically all cases report cards are carried home by the pupils. This seems to be decidedly the better policy, since mailing the cards may imply that pupils are expected to be dishonest. While school marks are forged by a fearful or over-anxious boy or girl in a few cases, it seems that a sense of responsibility can be developed only by

allowing pupils an opportunity to practice responsibility.

Report cards are issued at intervals of three, four, five, six, eight or nine weeks. The most common intervals of issuance are four, five and six weeks. The period covered by marks should be long enough to be representative and yet short enough to give desirable stimulation to pupils. Anything less than four weeks or more than nine weeks seems undesirable. The six-week period appears to be the best unit for regular report cards.

The actual posting of marks on the report cards is done in some schools by clerks in the central office, by the home room teachers or by the various teachers. Ideally most of the clerical work of a school should be done by special workers for this purpose. Most schools, however, do not have funds large enough to make this possible. Such being the case the most reasonable policy seems to be that of requiring each teacher to post his own grades. In this connection for the junior and senior high schools, the individual subject or activity card seems preferable to the total subject card.

In most schools, report cards are returned by the pupil to the various home room teachers and then sent to the office of the principal. In a few schools, however, these cards are kept in the home rooms. The first of these practices seems the more desirable one.

In many schools, the report card has become a matter-of-fact affair rather than the result of careful planning. Tradition alone too often is the basis for current practice with respect to report cards. Administrators and teachers alike would do well to evaluate the practice with respect to report cards and make sure conditions are the best that can be obtained under extenuating circumstances.

Politics as a Public School Course Urged by Californian

A course of study in the public schools to equip persons to practice politics as a profession has been advocated in a statement by Vierling Kersey, state superintendent of public instruction for California.

Mr. Kersey believes it is the duty of the public schools to bring about a redefinition of the word "politics" to mean public service, and to raise the standards of politics to make it a vocation that will "challenge the ideals and endeavors of the best young men and women of the country."

"This is a responsibility," Mr. Kersey says, "which public education has thus far ignored but which it must assume if American politics is to be returned to its former status."

¹The experiment is under the direction of Agness Boysen in Minneapolis, and of Shirley Almy in Madison.

²Wegner, H. C., School Forms and Records, *The Journal of Educational Method*, December, 1926, p. 150.

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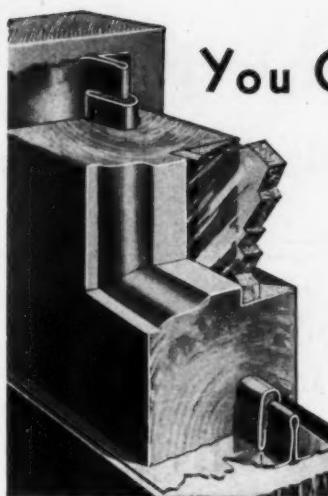


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News of the Month

Advisory Committee, in Report, Suggests Many Changes

A number of changes in the policies and activities of the Government in respect to education have been recommended to President Hoover by his National Advisory Committee on Education in its final report to the President which was made public November 16.

The committee, in its report, makes the following recommendations:

Abandonment of Federal appropriations to the states for special forms of education of interest to special groups of people.

Abandonment of the practice of requiring that Federal appropriations for education be matched by the states.

Continuance of Federal subventions to the states in support of education provided that each state is left free to use the money as state authorities consider for the best interest of the people of the state and without direction from the Government.

Periodic audits by the Federal Treasury Department, supplemented by regular and detailed public reports on how the money is used, to provide an adequate check on the proper expenditure of Federal funds.

The setting up of a "Federal headquarters for education" which would serve both as a center for cooperation for the educational work of all Federal agencies and as a reliable source of data.

That the Federal headquarters for education take the form of a Government department with a secretary of education at its head.

That existing Federal subsidies for vocational education be retained but that some of the limitations on them be removed through amendment of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, by repealing those provisions that require state matching of Federal funds and Federal approval of state plans and standards and that give Federal officials power to withhold funds. That the Federal Board for Vocational Education be abolished, after Congress amends the Smith-Hughes Act, and its remaining activities be transferred to the proposed department of education as a major division of the department.

The President's committee declares that the powers of the proposed department of education

must not be such as to encourage centralization of authority in Washington at the expense of state autonomy. The department, it says, "should have no legal or financial power and no regulatory or executive authority, direct or implied, by which it may control the social purposes and specific processes of education."

Minority reports were submitted to the President by two of the groups represented on the membership of the committee.

The representatives of Catholic education submitted a report in which they expressed opposition to the establishment of a Federal department of education in the Federal Government with a secretary at its head because "we are convinced that the establishment of such a department will inevitably bring about centralization and Federal control of education."

The representatives of Negro education on the committee, in the second minority report, urge that an exception be made to the policy of no Federal grants for special forms of education of interest to particular groups of people, in the case of Negro education. "A firm grappling with the problem of Negro education will lead the Government inevitably in the direction of some form of special grant for at least a limited number of years," says the minority report.

The National Advisory Committee on Education was appointed by President Hoover in May, 1929.

The other full sessions of the committee were held thereafter on October 14-15, 1929, June 20-21, 1930 and October 5-6, 1931.

Survey of Springfield Schools Is Published

A survey of the schools of Springfield, Ohio, has recently been published by the board of education of Springfield in cooperation with the bureau of educational research, Ohio State University. The survey was made by T. C. Holy, research associate of the bureau.

Chapter headings in the survey include: Growth and Character of the City of Springfield; School Organization and School Population; Status of the Present School Plant; Utilization of the Present Plant; Financial Program; School Building Needs.

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News of the Month (Cont'd)

World Federation Chooses Honolulu for 1932 Regional Meeting

Honolulu has been chosen as the meeting place of the first regional conference of the World Federation of Education Associations. The date is July 25 to 31, 1932.

The University of Hawaii summer session will coordinate its program to fit in with the conference by offering a school of Pacific and Oriental affairs from June 29 to August 9. Many of the convention delegates are expected to take advantage of this educational opportunity. The faculty of the school, under the direction of Dr. Charles E. Martin, University of Washington, will be drawn from the several nations bordering the Pacific Ocean.

The delegates will find in the Hawaiian Islands modern school systems. There are 181 public schools and sixty-nine private institutions employing a total of 3,144 instructors. The public school enrollment is 74,180 and there are more than 11,000 pupils in the private schools.

Three Billion Needed for New Schools Says Education Specialist

More than \$3,000,000,000 is now needed in the United States to construct new school buildings, and 251,000 additional classrooms to take care of enrollments are required, according to Dr. Walter J. Greenleaf, specialist in higher education, Office of Education.

This estimate, which was made by H. C. Eicher, director of school buildings in Pennsylvania, shows the future possibilities in the building and architectural fields, Doctor Greenleaf points out.

Doctor Greenleaf, who has just made a survey of architecture as a career, asserted that the need of good architecture in building schools and the great amounts of money ultimately to be expended in fulfilling the needs of American education alone should prove attractive to those who contemplate entering this profession. The following additional information on school building and architecture is supplied:

The progressive increase in school enrollments, especially in high schools, and the increasing consolidation of one-room schools have resulted in recent years in a great school building program which, as significant as it has been in the past,

has not yet solved the problem. Although the Office of Education has not conducted a survey on the future needs, the estimate brought to its attention is taken to be reasonable.

A new tendency in architecture has brought increasingly to the forefront of education in that field the importance of a combination of utility and artistic appearance. Engineering now is an important consideration whenever the architect envisages a building, whether a school or a skyscraper. It has been asserted that the modern architect must have his strictly architectural training placed on an engineering foundation so that the modern needs of society may be most economically and scientifically met.

School Finance Survey Launches Series of Conferences

The National Survey of School Finance has launched a nationwide series of conferences, the first of which was held in St. Paul, Minn.

These conferences are being attended and arranged by Dr. Paul R. Mort, associate director of the survey, and they are comprised of educators, financial experts and officials who will put at the disposal of the national committee every aspect of their financial problems of education.

Doctor Mort is expected to hold conferences in about twenty-four states by the spring of 1932. The many financial problems and their solution or attempts at solution will be studied and transcribed. State leaders will be enlisted for service in assisting the national survey. A system of cooperation will be developed so that the whole investigation will be expedited and treated comprehensively.

The first meeting in St. Paul touched on such problems as school indebtedness, the relation of the Government to school, finance, school accounting, auditing and reporting, and predictable changes in the expenditures of schools.

It is planned to chart definitely the cost of education. This will present graphically the relative expenditures for different levels from nursery schools to universities. Charges for overhead administration will be traced while the contributions of county, city, state, and nation will be tabulated. It is believed that once a map of this kind is available future changes in the cost of education may be anticipated.

Can you give the correct answer?

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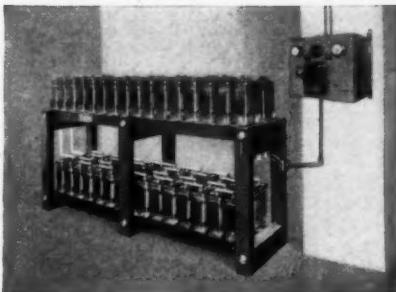
A crowded school auditorium, lecture hall or gymnasium is no place for current failure. Yet lights may go out any minute if your school is not protected . . . blanket it with total darkness . . . cause inconvenience, confusion and possible danger.

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News of the Month (Cont'd)

Dr. Charles McKenny of Michigan State Normal Is Honored

The Charles McKenny Hall of the Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, built in honor of Charles McKenny, president, was dedicated on October 24. The hall, which is a beautiful and commodious one, has been erected wholly by contributions from the alumni, the faculty and friends of the normal college. There is universal agreement to the effect that President McKenny is eminently deserving of the tribute he has thus received.

Doctor McKenny is a Michigan man by birth, by education for the most part, and by service in educational work except for a few years in Wisconsin. He has received academic and honorary degrees from colleges in Michigan. He earned his master of arts degree at the University of Wisconsin. Olivet conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D., and Miami, D.Ed. He served for twelve years as president of the State Normal School at Milwaukee. For twenty years he has been at the head of the State College at Ypsilanti. He has been a member of the advisory editorial board of *The NATION'S SCHOOLS* since its foundation.

Histories to Trace Educational Progress of the States

Histories of the development of education in fifteen states are now being written by qualified schools and when complete will be published by the Office of Education, according to information recently made public.

The compilation of historical material on state education is in line with a movement sponsored by the Office of Education and the National Committee on State Histories of Education to make available in concise narrative a complete account of the American public school system from earliest times to the present so that out of it a true history of American education may be written.

The states which are subjects of the historical studies are: California, Connecticut, Georgia, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Jersey, Oklahoma, Oregon, Utah and Washington.

Preparation of histories of education in the respective states is an outgrowth of the first report of the national committee on state histories which

revealed that only eight of the sixty-two extant state histories of education are reliable and up to date and that nine states have no published account whatever of the development of their school systems.

The committee, which is composed of twenty-two college professors, points out that the authorship should interest students of educational history resident in centers where documentary materials are abundant. Graduate students in this field may find the possibilities for research quite adequate for meeting the requirements for higher degrees. Some of the histories will doubtless be prepared as dissertations for the doctor's degree.

Public Trade Schools Urged as a Pressing Need

There is greater need than ever before for public trade and industrial schools, Dr. Charles A. Prosser, chairman of the committee on technological unemployment, declares.

Cities of considerable size should provide "opportunity schools" for boys within the compulsory school attendance age to train them according to their abilities, he says. Such schools are needed because the country needs to equip that type of youth properly so that he can meet the rising demands for mechanical and technical ability in the designing, construction, installation and care of the mechanism of the economic world.

He continues:

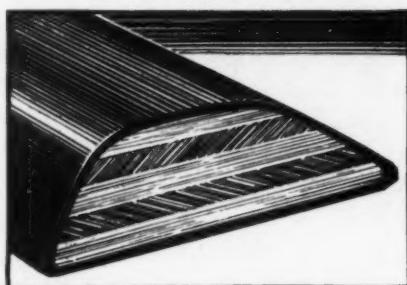
"The public trade or industrial schools should select and train for skilled occupations the more capable youth of the community who want to follow such occupations. I predict that there will be an increasing demand for such young men to make their positions in the industrial world secure by becoming skilled and intelligent workers, instead of machine tenders or mere specialists."

"In my opinion, also, every city of size needs to provide separate opportunity schools for those boys and girls who are required by law to remain in school after fourteen years of age but who do not possess the native ability or mechanical aptitude to master a trade or skilled occupation. In such opportunity schools each could, according to his ability and interest, be given the individual training best adapted to help him, as far as possible, to find a job and adapt himself to another job when displaced."

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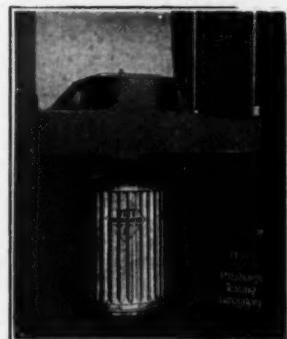
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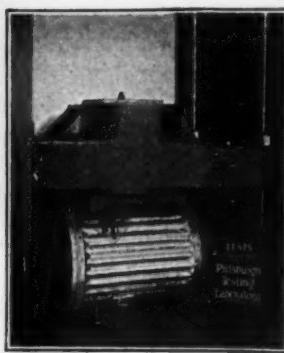
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News of the Month (Cont'd)

Board of Education Records Is Subject of New Book

A recent publication that should be of unusual value to both superintendents and members of boards of education is a carefully written volume on "Legal Aspects for the Records of Proceedings of Boards of Education," by M. R. Keyworth, superintendent of schools, Hamtramck, Mich. In slightly less than 200 pages Doctor Keyworth has brought together the major superior court decisions regarding the validity of board of education records and has summarized them into a series of thirty-four principles.

A careful perusal of this volume will prevent many errors and subsequent annoyance in the keeping of board of education proceedings. He also includes a model legal form to be followed in the organization of proceedings. This publication represents a real contribution to the literature of educational administration and is highly recommended to superintendents and board of education members. It is published by the Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee.

School Bus Is Not an "Omnibus Line" Court Holds

A decision has just been rendered in the supreme court, Westchester County, New York, in the case of Joseph DeMatteis *versus* Jasper Jones, in which the court holds that a vehicle used solely for the transportation of children to and from school is not an "omnibus line" within the purview of the public service law.

The defendant, who is operating a school bus under contract with the district, was driving the bus over a portion of the highway on which the plaintiff had a franchise under certificate issued to him. The plaintiff sought to enjoin the defendant from operating such school bus over any portion of his franchise line. The court holds that the plaintiff has no right to the injunctive relief sought by him.

The case arose under a recent amendment to the public service law and affects many hundreds of school districts in which contracts have been made for the carrying of school children, according to a statement issued by the state education department. In effect, it was stated, the decision affirms

the ruling of the public service commission that school busses operated for the carrying of school children only are not required to have a certificate of public convenience and necessity under the public service law.

"Nursery Education" Is Subject of Recent Report

What American education is doing for 16,000,000 children under six years old in this country and what society is doing to aid wage earning mothers to give their children proper environment are told in "Nursery Education," the recently issued report of the Committee on the Infant and Preschool Child of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

No existing study approaches this one with reference to the number of children studied, to the extent of the information gathered, or even to the completeness of the sample.

The general findings and specific recommendations of the committee are included in the report. These outline the fundamental principles that should guide those concerned with the training of the preschool child and give the minimum standards the committee believes should be required of all institutions receiving young children for care and training.

Court Dismisses School Segregation Appeal

The appeal in the case in which certain residents of Del Rio, Tex., complained of the segregation of American children of Mexican or Spanish descent in elementary grades of the public school of that town apart from other white children was dismissed by the Supreme Court of the United States, according to the *United States Daily*. The court entered an order stating its want of jurisdiction to hear the matter.

The school authorities, according to the opinion of the Texas Court of Civil Appeals for the Fourth District, made the segregation because of the language difficulty of the children of Mexican and Spanish descent, because of their late entrance into school and to develop the special talents of such children.

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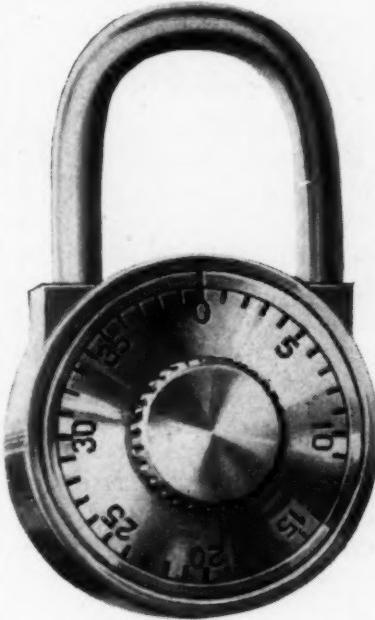
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News of the Month (Cont'd)

Board of Regents to Govern University of Georgia

As the first step in the reorganization of the state government in Georgia on January 1, Gov. Richard B. Russell, Jr. has appointed a board of regents for the University of Georgia and its branches, to take the place of twenty-four separate boards of trustees that now operate the state's educational institutions.

Governor Russell is yet to name a board of control to direct the eight eleemosynary institutions in the state, supplanting eight separate boards, as well as five assistants to the attorney general, two directors of the department of industrial relations and a state purchasing agent.

The board of regents is made up of one representative of each of the ten congressional districts in the state and one man from the state at large, to serve concurrently with the governor. Four of the new board members are present trustees of the University of Georgia.

Council on School Building Problems to Meet February 24

The third annual conference of the National Advisory Council on School Building Problems will discuss at a meeting February 24, 1932, at the Interior Department, a report destined to have a great influence on the economy of school building in the future. The report is now in process of compilation following a nationwide study of elementary school buildings by the National Advisory Council on School Building Problems. Exhibits, slides and lectures will be presented.

Alice Barrows, specialist at the Office of Education, has held a series of regional conferences with local committees from which has come much information on the architectural features of the buildings in the light of their utility and economy. Architects and educators have been brought together in a series of meetings which have been devoted to the functional planning of elementary school buildings. It has been the aim of these groups, meeting in various sections of the country, to set down graphically seventy-five distinct types of buildings, the design and layout of the rooms and the actual use of the space every hour in the day. When the final facts are compiled, it will be

possible to design a certain building to suit special educational requirements, and thus prevent waste of space and unnecessary construction costs.

The investigation involved a complete study of school sites and plots, rooms, auditoriums, gymnasiums, play spaces and other details. Architects have cooperated heartily in the study and show a keen interest in the forthcoming publication of results.

In conducting the study, 165 persons have participated. The whole purpose of the council organization has been to mobilize expert knowledge on school building problems. Special attention has been given to each local situation, and every plan presented takes into account the special local problems. The report, therefore, will assemble data regarding local experience and practices for general information.

Special regional conferences were held for the New England group at Providence, R. I., for New York at Albany, the Middle Atlantic States at Pittsburgh, the Great Lakes States at Detroit, the North Central States at Minneapolis, the Central at Lincoln, Neb., the Rocky Mountain States at Denver, the Northwestern group at Portland, Ore., the Pacific Western at Sacramento, the Gulf States at New Orleans, and the South Atlantic States at Atlanta.

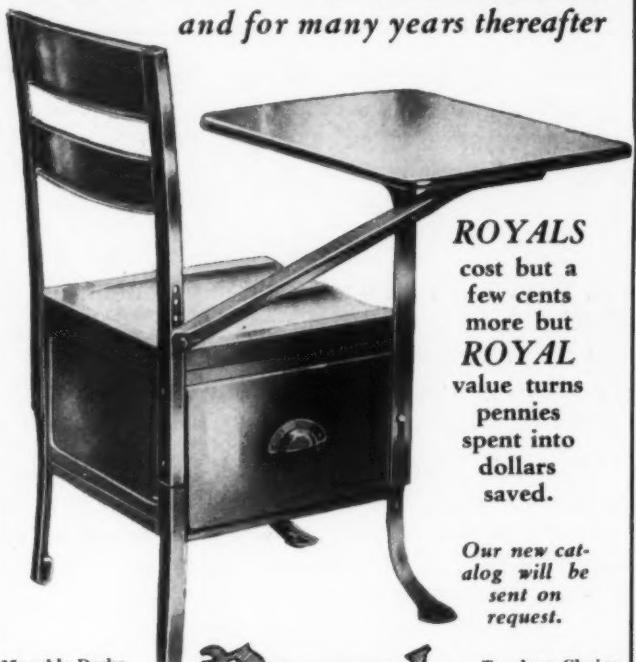
Ohio Educational Conference Issues Complete Report

Covering practically every subject that is at present receiving the attention of the educational world, the report of the eleventh Ohio State Educational Conference has recently been issued. The conference, which was held at Ohio State University, was attended by educators from every part of the country.

The report has reprinted in full the speeches made at the various sessions and represents a valuable compendium of the best thought of America on educational affairs and progress.

Sectional meetings are divided into such headings as: Adult Education; Attendance Supervisors; City Superintendents; County Superintendents; Clinical Psychology; Elementary Principals; Guidance Counselors; High School Principals; Religious Education; School Business Officials; Village School Superintendents; Visual Education.

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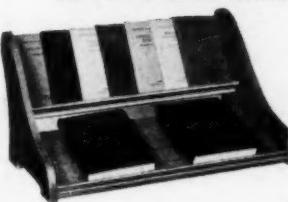
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In the Educational Field

PATRICK T. CAMPBELL, assistant superintendent of schools, Boston, has been chosen to succeed the late DR. JEREMIAH E. BURKE as superintendent of schools, Boston. EDWARD J. MULDOON, master of the Bigelow Intermediate School, South Boston, becomes assistant superintendent.

H. T. SINGLETON, superintendent of schools, Calhoun County, Georgia, has been elected president, Georgia Association of School Superintendents. He succeeds B. M. GRIER, Athens, Ga.

GEORGE KINTNER will retire January 1 as supervising principal, Carlstadt Public Schools, Carlstadt, N. J., after thirty years of service in the position. He will be succeeded by EDWARD A. KROM.

HECTOR L. BELISLE, superintendent of schools, Fall River, Mass., is the newly elected president of the New England Association of School Superintendents.

ERNEST A. HARDING, supervising principal, Wallington, N. J., has been made superintendent of schools, Bergen County, New Jersey. CHARLES T. STRAHAN, deputy commissioner of education for New Jersey, has been serving temporarily since the death of BENJAMIN C. WOOSTER.

WILLIAM J. BICKETT, for eleven years superintendent of schools, Trenton, N. J., died on November 19 following an operation.

FREDERICK ARCHER became superintendent of schools, Louisville, Ky., on December 1, succeeding L. R. GREGORY who resigned to become principal of the State Normal School, Fredonia, N. Y.

DR. MYRON J. MICHAEL, superintendent of schools, Kingston, N. Y., died recently. He was eighty years old, and for fifty-six years he had been an educator in New York State, thirty-six of which were spent in Kingston. His successor is B. C. VAN INGEN, principal, Kingston High School.

W. M. GREEN has been named to succeed M. H. MOORE, superintendent of schools, Fort Worth, Tex., who resigned last August. MR. GREEN has been serving as acting superintendent since MR. MOORE'S resignation.

WALTER E. LANE, North Berwick, Me., is the new superintendent of the Charlemont School Union, which includes also Heath, Rowe and Hawley, Mass., succeeding WILLIAM HEBARD, resigned.

ALINA M. LINDEGREN, for the last three years instructor in medieval history and modern European history at State Teachers College, Superior, Wis., has been appointed to the foreign schools systems branch, Office of Education, as specialist in western European school systems.

S. MERVIN SMYSER, assistant superintendent of schools, Bucks County, Pennsylvania, died recently following an attack of apoplexy. He had served as assistant superintendent since 1915. He was sixty years old.

LUCIUS A. WHIPPLE, principal, Pawtucket Senior High School, Pawtucket, R. I., has resigned to become director of surveys and research for the state department of education. ALFRED J. MARYOTT, principal, East Providence High School, East Providence, R. I., succeeds MR. WHIPPLE.

W. W. McCONNELL, superintendent of schools, Winfield, Kan., was found shot to death on the high school campus on the night of November 18. EVAN E. EVANS succeeds MR. McCONNELL.

DR. GEORGE GUILLE, president, William Jennings Bryan Memorial University, Dayton, Tenn., died recently.

RUTH OLIVE BAKER, principal, Francis T. Nicholls School, New Orleans, died recently.

HERMAN B. VORGANG succeeds MARY K. VOIGT as principal, Jeffersonville High School, Jeffersonville, Ind.

DR. ALBERT LEONARD, superintendent of schools, New Rochelle, N. Y., for nearly twenty-five years, has retired. When the retirement was announced, the board of education paid a permanent tribute to DOCTOR LEONARD by voting to change the name of Central Junior High School to the Albert Leonard Junior High School.

DR. J. S. WORRELL, formerly superintendent of schools, Sabina, Ohio, died recently. He had been in ill health for some time.

H. A. RICE, formerly superintendent of schools, Grafton, W. Va., is serving as superintendent at Huntington, W. Va., this year. His successor at Grafton is E. G. KUHN, formerly principal of the Grafton High School.

DR. KENNETH GORDON MATHESON, president, Drexel Institute, Philadelphia, for the last nine years, died recently. He was sixty-eight years old.

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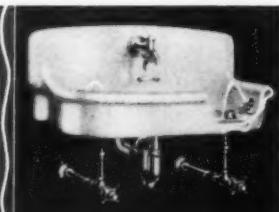
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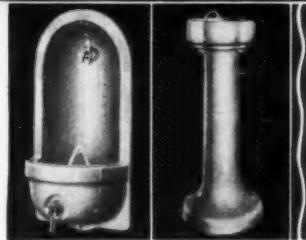
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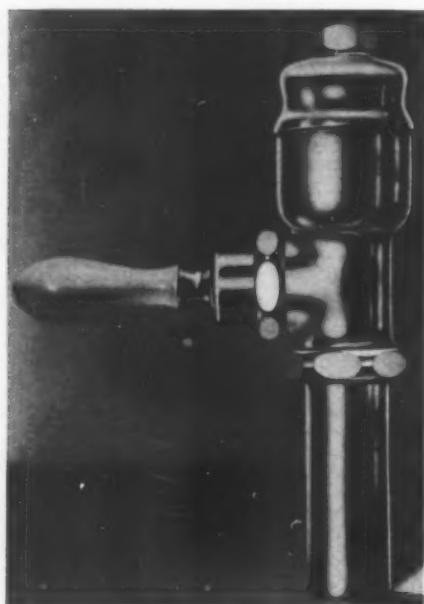
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This new valve may be used on water pressures that vary from five to 100 pounds. It is supplied for seat operated or hand operated flushes, and may be concealed within a pipe space or exposed in the toilet stall. The changed mechanism has the advantage of having fewer parts to be replaced due to wear, and may be used wherever flush valves are desired.



This improved type of valve can be used for either seat operated or hand operated flushes and may be concealed within a pipe or exposed.

nates all diaphragm construction which eventually wears out, and only the valve seats need replacement. The entire working mechanism of the valve can be removed with a screw driver. This simplicity of construction makes it easy to repair any of the worn parts without completely dismantling the fixture.

Can Be Used With Varying Pressures

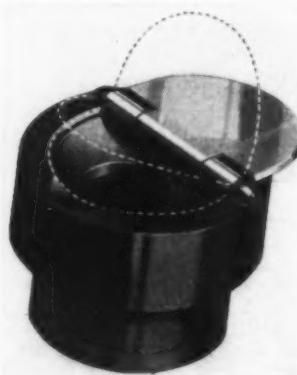
Other features are a self-cleaning relief valve and the Sloco Xpelor that expels anything in the by-pass immediately before the start of the flush. Sand and dirty water do not prevent the proper functioning of the valve. This valve is designed

An Unbreakable Inkwell That Lowers Replacement Costs

Such a simple item as the school inkwell has offered many problems and considerable annoyance to teachers, janitors, pupils and manufacturers. An inkwell that appears to overcome many of these annoyances has been designed by the Sengbusch Self-Closing Inkstand Co., 821 Sengbusch Building, Milwaukee.

The new No. 49 model is a one-piece inkwell with the container made of hard vulcanized rubber, and a securely attached hinged top made of brass. The brass top has an easy hinge, so that when the top is open it must lie flat against the

One ounce of ink is the maximum capacity of this new and convenient inkwell model.



desk. This eliminates any possibility of the pupil's bending the cover or of breaking it off, and makes it impossible for him to flop the top back and forth in an attempt to imitate a wireless operator.



To Save Money on Your Linens

It isn't necessarily a matter of buying additional linens to have a full laundry cupboard. That's a costly procedure. The better way comes through careful attention to the flow of linen in the laundry department. If the laundry is properly planned and equipped, it is a relatively simple matter to keep closets stacked with ample supplies of fresh linens. Troy School Advisory Service can help you with this problem.

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DUDLEY LOCK CORPORATION
26 N. Franklin St., Dept. A-812, Chicago, Ill.



**DUDLEY
LOCKS**



The acid in ink does not injure rubber or brass, and this eliminates separate glass containers, which are the greatest item in inkwell replacement costs.

This model is inserted in the desk top so that the lid is flush with the surface of the desk. The well is held in place by a flange on the container and in the desk. To remove for cleaning, the whole inkwell is lifted out of the desk top. The inkwell is practically airtight when closed and holds a maximum of one ounce of ink.

Several sizes are manufactured to fit the various sizes of existing holes in school desks and chairs that are now in use.

New Costumer Provides Economical Cloakroom Accommodations

Cloakroom facilities for the gymnasium, auditorium, small lecture hall, or community room are often inadequate or are omitted entirely in school accommodations. It has been felt that the omission of these accommodations is a justifiable economy. However, when the general public is invited to



Here we see the Utilatree in use, accommodating a large number of coats without crushing them.

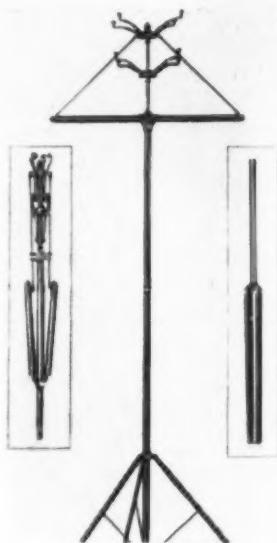
participate in the entertainment facilities of the school some method of coat storage should be supplied. Often it is not desirable to sacrifice classroom space for this occasional accommodation by providing a special room. If there is a classroom, office, or small room adjacent to the recreation rooms, or a corridor that is conveniently located, a temporary cloakroom may be established by the use of a new folding costumer.

How Costumer Operates

The Utilatree, made by the Utilatree Products, Inc., 75 Varick St., New York City, is a folding costumer that will accommodate fifteen to twenty winter overcoats without crushing. It is substan-

tially constructed of seamless steel tubing covered with baked lacquer in walnut, mahogany, olive green, or ivory finishes. The costumer folds into a package 39 by 3 by 3 inches for storage. The storage space necessary to accommodate the larg-

When not in use, two collapsible sections of the costumer may be tucked away into a small space, 39 by 3 by 3 inches.



est number of costumers that are required is very small.

This simple means of completing the school appointments without great expense or waste of valuable space is worthy of consideration. Because the Utilatree is economical and adds to the comfort of the visiting public it should be an asset to the school.

Bubbler Fountains Adaptable to Narrow Corridors

Two new wall drinking fountains made by the Crane Co., 836 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, have been added to the Corwith group of fountains.

The wall hung Corwith angle bubbler and the Cristal recessed wall bubbler are made of vitreous china, with fittings of either nickel or chromium plate. These bubblers are of the raised integral angle stream, nonsquirting type, fitted with a Crane automatic stream regulator, a ball bearing self-closing valve, a $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch pipe inlet, and a $1\frac{1}{4}$ -inch waste. The automatic stream regulator is used to maintain a uniform height drinking stream on pressures varying from five pounds upwards. It should be installed between the controlling stop and the bubbler. All these fittings are concealed within the fountain, but are accessible for regulation through openings in the china receptor.

The raised integral china nozzle prevents any contamination of the supply port if the waste should become clogged and the receptor overflow.



LEADERSHIP in Unit Heating and Ventilating

LEADERSHIP in the development of Unit Heating and Ventilating systems is a Buckeye characteristic. The new "900" Series Buckeye HEATO-VENT is another distinct step in advance. More compact in its space requirements; simpler and more accessible in its construction; extremely economical in operation; self-protected against freezing. Supplies fresh air—filtered, warmed and diffused without drafts—to each room as a unit. Automatically maintains both volume and temperature. Write for Bulletin Number 124.



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A smooth, velvety surface on which one can write with remarkable ease, noiselessly and without scratching. A surface that positively will not reflect light . . . from which writing can be read without eyestrain from any angle and the farthest point in the classroom.

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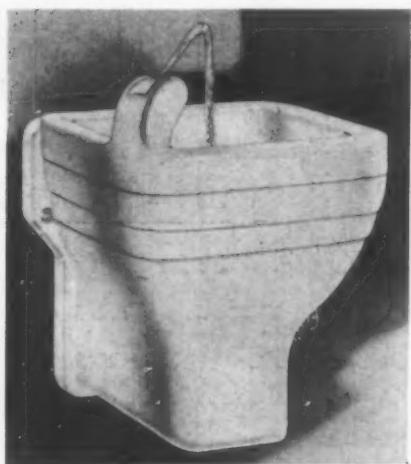
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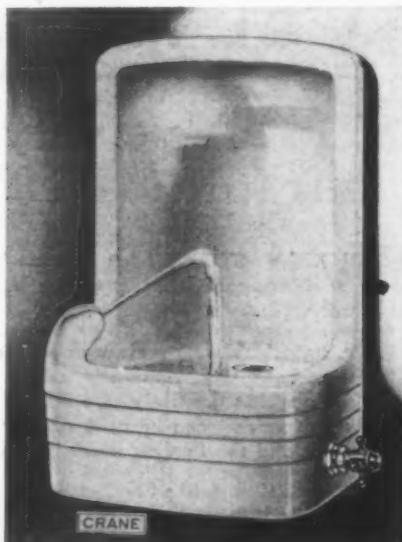
A lip guard and hood on the nozzle prevents the lips from touching or saliva from falling on the supply port. This type of spout has been approved by the American Public Health Association. The raised china nozzle type of drinking fountain should not be installed in such places as shops and gymnasiums unless it is protected. The china nozzle is sufficiently strong to withstand ordinary wear, but it is not strong enough to withstand a



In the wall hung Corwith angle bubbler the projection is 13 inches from the finished wall to the front of the receptor.

hard blow or accidental rough usage such as might occur in these rooms.

The raised integral spout, which has been placed on one of the outer corners of the receptor, makes possible the use of a small sized receptor. The overall dimensions of the Corwith bubbler are 12



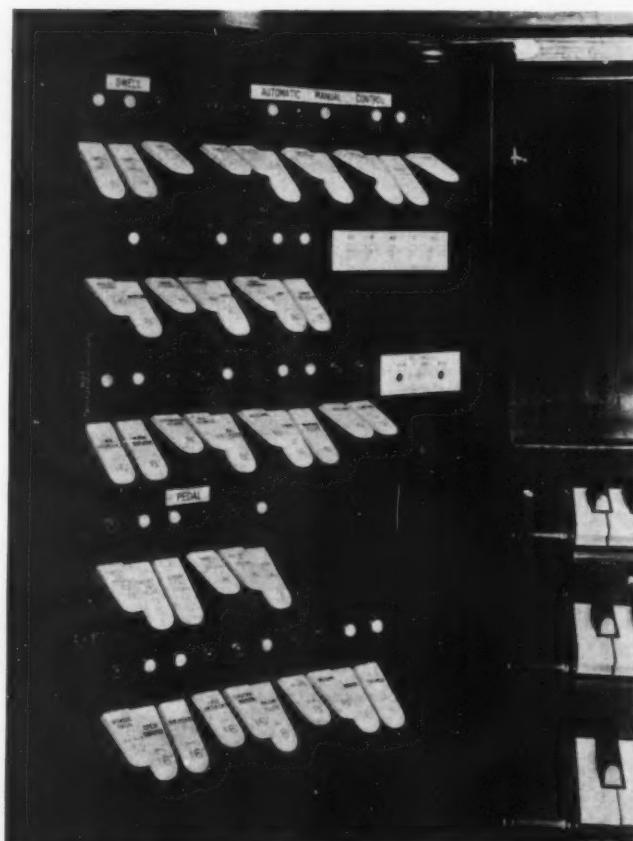
The Cristal wall recessed bubbler projects only 7 inches from the corridor wall, with 4½ inches recessed into the wall.

by 13 inches. The Cristal bubbler is 14 by 11½ by 26 inches. The projection of the Corwith model is 13 inches from the finished wall to the front of the receptor. The Cristal projects 7 inches with another 4½ inches recessed into the wall. This small projection is of the greatest advantage if bubblers are installed in narrow corridors.

Signal Lights for Organ Stops Simplify Music Instruction

An added refinement to the visual instruction system of Estey Organs has been incorporated in the three and four manual concert type made by the Estey Organ Company, Brattleboro, Vt.

Lights above the organ stops indicate which ones are being played. These indicators have been adapted so that the signal lights flash whether the organ is played manually or automatically. The visual impression united with the auditory



The white dots are lighted bulbs over the stop tables on the console of the new organ employed in the visual instruction system.

should help to identify the types of instruments simulated by the pipes, and should associate the instruments or pipes used with the harmonic effects obtained. One of the advantages of the signal lights is that large classes may gather around the organ console and see clearly which stops are being used. This new light system should be of particular value when the new multireproducing mechanism is used to reproduce symphonic works played by several organs. It would be equivalent to having a teacher pointing out the instruments used in a symphony orchestra.

Other advantages of this added feature may suggest themselves to organ teachers.

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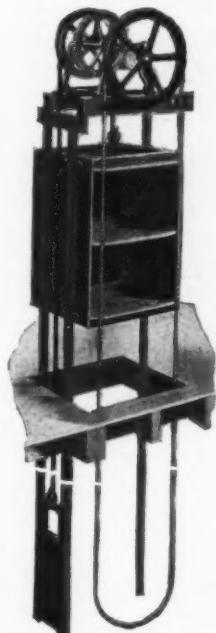
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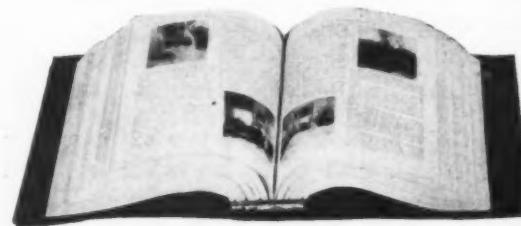
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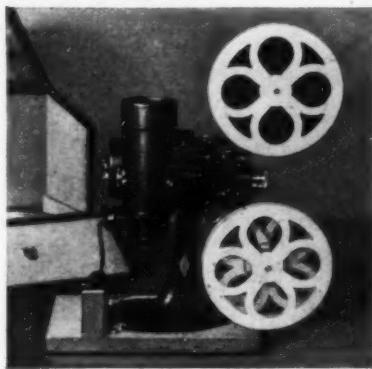
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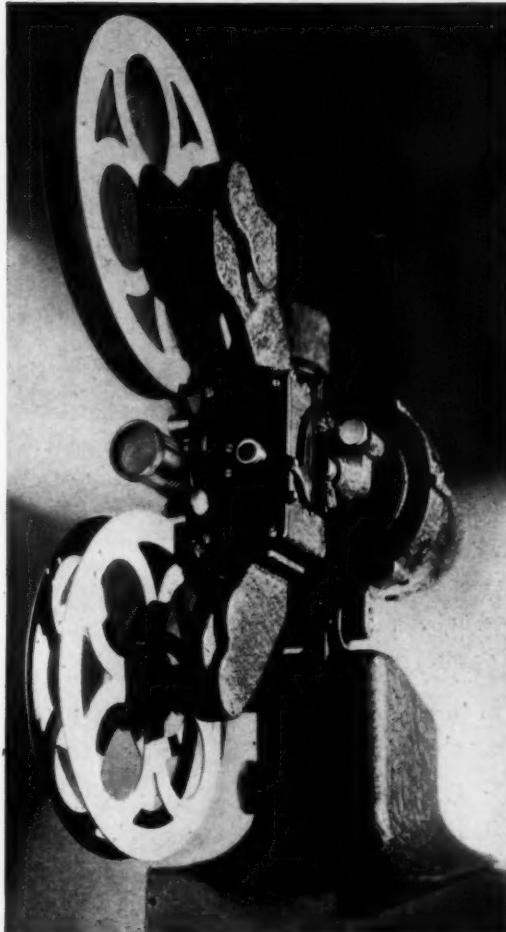
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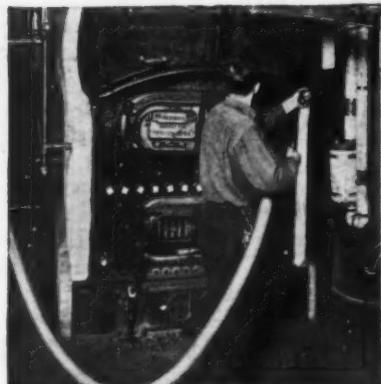
But the biggest saving is not in dollars—it is in the precious welfare of the children who attend your school. Clean air and clean rooms mean health and high morale.

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